

CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Number 1

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Address contributions to Helen Heffernan, Chief, Division of Elementary Education and Rural Schools, State Department of Education, Sacramento.

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EDITORIAL COMMENT AND NEWS NOTES

TENTATIVE DATES FOR REGIONAL CONFERENCES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Regional conferences for elementary school principals which are sponsored by the California State Department of Education in cooperation with the California Elementary School Principals' Association will be held during 1938-39 according to the following schedule:

September 13, 1938—North Coast Section.....	Ukiah
October 22, 1938—Bay Section.....	San Francisco
December 10, 1938—San Joaquin Valley Section.....	Fresno
February 11, 1939—Central Coast Section.....	Santa Cruz
March 11, 1939—Southern Section.....	Palm Springs

ANNUAL^{*} CONFERENCE OF SUPERVISORS AND DIREC- TORS OF INSTRUCTION AND SUPERVISORS OF CHILD WELFARE

The annual Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction and Supervisors of Child Welfare will be held October 3, 4, and 5, 1938. The Conference is sponsored by the California State Department of Education and will immediately precede the Annual Conference of City, County and District Superintendents of Schools which is scheduled for October 5, 6, 7. Both meetings will be held at the same place in southern California, but the exact location is to be announced later.

YEARBOOK OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION¹

Guidance has been the concern of principals and teachers in the elementary school for many years but constant help is needed to insure the maximum results from the programs which have been inaugurated. The appearance of *Guidance in the Elementary School*, the 1938 Yearbook of the California Elementary School Principals' Association, marks the tenth year of such service to the principals of the state. It is gratifying to note the ever increasing interest in the child rather than in administrative machinery which is manifested

¹ *Guidance in Elementary Education*. Tenth Yearbook of the California Elementary School Principals' Association, edited by Sarah L. Young. Vol. X, May, 1938. Oakland: California Elementary School Principals' Association.

by the professional publications of California elementary school principals.

The Tenth Yearbook attempts to help principals determine the effectiveness of the guidance program in their specific situations in achieving the basic social and individual goals for which the schools are established.

Important aspects of the problem have been discussed by experts from California and other states, successful programs in urban and rural areas have been explained by teachers, principals, and superintendents, types of cumulative records, check sheets, home reports and methods of observation have been included, in order that principals may evaluate their own guidance programs.

Sections dealing with the articulation of the elementary and secondary school and the close contacts between home, school and community indicate a recognition on the part of administrators in the total educative experiences of children.

Sarah L. Young, 1938 Yearbook editor, is to be congratulated upon the wide number of contributors participating in this publication. It is fittingly dedicated to the founder and first president of the Association, Dr. Aymer J. Hamilton, President of Chico State College.

The members of the Elementary School Principals' Association will find in *Guidance in the Elementary School*, a handbook of sound educational theory and practical techniques, which will implement them in their endeavors to guide children in their personal adjustments and in their relations to society. Copies of the yearbook may be secured from Sarah L. Young, Principal, Parker School, 7921 Ney Avenue, Oakland, California.

SANTA BARBARA CITY SCHOOLS PRODUCE CURRICULUM PUBLICATION

Much interest is being manifested throughout the state in a bulletin entitled *Developmental Curriculum*, Bulletin No. 1, Santa Barbara City Schools, March, 1938. This bulletin partially represents the work of the curriculum study carried on during the past three years with the assistance of a staff of curriculum consultants from Stanford University.

The plan of curriculum study followed in Santa Barbara is described in the foreword by Superintendent of Schools Curtis E. Warren:

The first year was characterized by study of the psychological, philosophical, and social foundations of education through the medium of study groups, professional and lay, working with staff members of the Stanford

School of Education. At the close of this year of intensive study, the following committees were organized: aims and objectives, scope and sequence, and editorial.

The school year of 1936-1937 was largely given over to the work of developing the pattern of the "scope and sequence," "aims and objectives," and "descriptive activities" as suggested by each "major center of attention." Groups of teachers were brought together with the Director of Curriculum and Instruction for developing descriptive activities which would bring the scope and sequence and aims and objectives into a working relationship. The pattern for the aims and objectives sets up the type of personality product the school should develop; the scope and sequence provides suggestive organization of experiences to secure this type of personality development.

The bulletin is available for 50 cents to cover cost of printing and mailing. It may be secured by addressing The Curriculum Department, Santa Barbara City Schools, 1235 Chapala Street, Santa Barbara, California.

PUPILS' ANTHOLOGY OF VERSE

RAINBOW ROADS

Oh, to be a vagabond
Along Rainbow Roads
When stormy skies have cleared!
Adventuring gaily—elated—free—
Catching rare rhythms
Of mountain and sea—
Discarding all patterns
Of conventional phrase
And—creating one's own
Poetry.

is the opening of an attractive book of original verse and music by children collected under the title, *Rainbow Roads*, in the Bakersfield schools by Superintendent Lawrence E. Chenoweth which has recently been received. Suggestions of techniques to be used in presenting creative expression in the classroom have been included in the volume. The chairman of the teachers' committee which aided in compiling the collection wrote the opening verse quoted here. There are more than fifty pages devoted to lovely bits of expression by elementary and junior high school children.

The introduction states that "the mood's the thing." Bakersfield children have indeed caught the mood in this anthology.

THE ROMANCE OF CALIFORNIA

In observance of the Sacramento Golden Empire Centennial (1839-1939), the Sacramento Chamber of Commerce has prepared a booklet entitled, *The Romance of California*, which will be of interest

to teachers throughout the state. The story of the discovery of gold is told in picturesque language, the golden trail into the mother lode country is followed from Sutter's Fort through settlements the names of which are redolent of the days of '49—Rattlesnake Bar, Yankee Jim, Michigan Bluff, You Bet, Red Dog, Dutch Flat, Rough and Ready. Over a hundred such landmarks are described.

The land of Bret Harte and Mark Twain adds more than sixty other names famous in the early history of Amador and Tuolumne counties.

An excellent map of the Golden Empire is attached to the back cover of the pamphlet. *The Romance of California* may be obtained from the Sacramento Chamber of Commerce at 25 cents a copy for single copies or at 15 cents a copy in lots of six or more copies.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH TO BILINGUAL CHILDREN

Successful Practices in the Teaching of English to Bilingual Children in Hawaii is the title of a bulletin recently prepared by Willis B. Coale, Assistant Professor of English, and Madorah E. Smith, Assistant Professor of Psychology and Education, both of the University of Hawaii. This bulletin was published by the United States Office of Education as Bulletin 1937, No. 14. The publication covers a specialized problem in education. Bilingualism presents serious instructional difficulties. This problem is particularly aggravated in Hawaii where often more than one foreign language is spoken in a single home.

The bulletin deals with the adjustment of curriculum content to the abilities, needs, and experiences of the Hawaiian child, and the necessity for developing facility in the use of English early in the school life so that the child may profit from later instruction. The bulletin is designed to develop understanding of the situation on the part of the teachers and parents.

Two studies are reported in the bulletin: one study deals with the type of errors made by Hawaiian school children; the other describes the practices used by successful teachers of English to bilingual children.

Katherine M. Cook, Chief, Division of Special Problems, United States Office of Education, suggested the idea of the study on the occasion of a visit to Hawaii, and has since given the study her continued support and direction.

In California, where bilingualism is a problem in many schools, teachers will find the methods discussed here applicable to their situation.

SUBJECT INDEX TO READERS

The American Library Association has made a significant contribution to the program of progressive education in the compilation of a *Subject Index to Readers*, by Eloise Rue. Two hundred and eighty-five outstanding books ranging in difficulty from pre-primers to material suitable for the third grade have been indexed under one thousand subject heads. Such a comprehensive index of materials found in the best and most used readers has been needed for some time and this volume will prove invaluable to schools in organizing teaching around large centers of interest. It may be obtained for \$1.80 from the American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

MICHIGAN TODAY

The Michigan State Department of Education has published an interesting curriculum-planning bulletin entitled *Michigan Today, Its Human and Physical Resources as They Affect Education*. This 300-page bulletin supplies factual data concerning the natural, economic, and social resources of Michigan in an attempt to encourage and facilitate the use of local environment in the development of community centered schools. Attention is called throughout to the close relationship existing between economic and social problems and the natural and industrial resources in the community; and it is suggested that "the school curriculum should be adjusted and geared in the light of these observations and implications."

Members of the staff of Michigan State College, the University of Michigan, the various state and federal agencies, as well as members of the Michigan State Department of Education, contributed to this publication.

QUEER FARMS

A unique text telling about farms in California where living things of one sort and another are kept, has been prepared by the children of the sixth grade in Ascot School, Los Angeles. The material has been edited by Fred W. Orth, Principal, and Maryland Van Artsdalen, teacher. *Queer Farms* includes chapters on the Alligator Farm, the Lion Farm, the Cactus Farm, the Fish Farm, the Fox Farm, and many others.

The authors have produced motion pictures to supplement each chapter. The films are of 16 millimeters in width and are confined to 200-foot lengths for each farm. The book, which is priced at \$2.00, and information about the films may be obtained by addressing Mr. Orth, care of Ivan Deach, Jr., publisher, Burbank, California.

INEXPENSIVE BOOKS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

The second edition of *Inexpensive Books for Boys and Girls* is a useful pamphlet which includes 890 titles and covers a wide range of subjects requested by children. Nonfiction and the standard fiction titles predominate and no book over one dollar in price is included. The list has been prepared by the Book Evaluation Committee of the Section for Library Work with Children of the American Library Association. The cost of the pamphlet is 50 cents, and it may be obtained from the American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The annual convention of the National Council for the Social Studies will be held in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, November 25 and 26, 1938. This session should be of interest to social studies teachers of all grades from elementary school through the university. Further information may be secured by addressing R. O. Hughes; Chairman Local Arrangements, Department of Curriculum Study, Pittsburgh Public Schools, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

The eighteenth annual observance of American Education Week will be held November 6-12, 1938. The program adopted by the National Education Association in cooperation with the other national sponsors—the United States Office of Education and the American Legion—has been announced as a guide to school administrators in undertaking plans for local observances.

The general theme for the week is Education for Tomorrow's America. The following topics are the program themes for the days of the week:

Sunday,	November	6, Achieving the Golden Rule
Monday,	November	7, Developing Strong Bodies and Able Minds
Tuesday,	November	8, Mastering Skills and Knowledge
Wednesday,	November	9, Attaining Values and Standards
Thursday,	November	10, Accepting New Civic Responsibilities
Friday,	November	11, Holding Fast to Our Ideals of Freedom
Saturday,	November	12, Gaining Security for All

AN EXAMINATION OF FACTORS STIMULATING OR DEPRESSING TEACHER MORALE¹

ROBERT E. CRALLE, *Superintendent of Schools, Inglewood*
and

WILLIAM H. BURTON, *Professor of Education,*
University of Southern California

THE PROBLEM

The purposes of this study were (1) to develop a method, (2) to discover, if possible, the irritations, frustrations, and blocks to the use of intelligence among teachers, and (3) to discover, if possible, some means of overcoming the frustrations, of freeing the teacher, and thus of developing morale.

THE PROCEDURE

A staff of teachers in a city school system was asked to turn in unsigned statements listing any illustrations of specific irritations, frustrations, or blocks which were inimical to their happiness or destructive of their initiative and efficiency. The items reported related to administrative and supervisory policies and procedures, personal relationships, inadequacies of personnel or material.

From the total list only those statements were selected which referred to administrative and supervisory policy and procedure. The other items were left for separate analysis. A selected number of those who turned in written reports and who signified willingness to be identified and interviewed were so interviewed at length. The conferences were for the purpose of establishing the exact meaning and scope of the items reported. Since no pressure was exerted only about one-half of the total staff reported. The total group involved is, therefore, small; and, as has been said, the methods and results reported are suggestive, not final.

SUMMARY CLASSIFICATION OF THE FRUSTRATIONS INTERFERING WITH MORALE

The categories in the following outline were selected by the writers who recognize that other schemes of classification may better suit other students. The original wording is retained so far as possible, which results in some incoordination in the form of statement.

¹ This is the second article on the subject of the morale of teachers. "The Teacher's Morale as an Important Factor in Teaching Success," by William H. Burton, appeared in the May issue.

- A. Frustrations related to participation and right relationships for resolving conflicts
 - 1. Disagreement with policies
 - 2. Conflicts in the application of policies
 - 3. No provision for participation in local school administration
 - 4. Conflicts between central policies and local school administration
 - 5. Conflicts between goals of the policies and goals of the particular school
- B. Frustrations related to channels for adjusting grievances and personal maladjustments
 - 1. Too much work for the teachers
 - 2. Unfair criticism of the teachers' work
 - 3. Inadequate provision for the teacher to talk over personal problems with supervising officers
 - 4. Display of favoritism
 - 5. Inadequate consideration in changes of assignment
 - 6. Complaints in the administration of the salary policy
- C. Frustrations related to inadequacies of specific supervisory guidance
 - 1. Need of more supervision
 - 2. Disagreements between teachers' and principal's ideas of methods
 - 3. Initiative hampered due to administrative prescription of methods of getting results
 - 4. Blocking initiative and freedom to use professional insight
 - 5. Where teachers know the recitation method and are required to work under the newer methods, it is a frustration if we do not have adequate guidance
- D. Frustrations related to inadequate recognition of efforts
 - 1. Lack of adequate encouragement
 - 2. After working hard on a special study to have no recognition of it or "follow-through"
 - 3. Feeling of not being judged upon merit for appointments or promotions
 - 4. A feeling that reward and security are not related to effort, ability, and achievement
- E. Frustrations related to general personal relationships
 - 1. Interruptions of class work
 - 2. Duties not clearly defined
 - 3. Inadequate explanation of central office instructions
 - 4. Lack of a plan for effecting unity within a school
 - 5. Influence of politics, manipulation of positions for personal rather than professional reasons
 - 6. Manipulation of salary without a policy
 - 7. Lack of good practices among parents in the matter of giving criticisms of teacher's work
 - 8. Criticism by parents without their having all the facts in the situation

SUMMARY OF BASIC PRINCIPLES FOR GUIDANCE IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF TECHNIQUES FOR THE REMOVAL OF FRUSTRATIONS

With the foregoing list of factors inimical to morale at hand, the next step is to find and summarize appropriate principles from social psychology, personnel management, general administration, and the like, which may serve as guides to solution of the difficulties. Again it is to be noted that the following categories of organization are provisional and tentative. Readers may wish to construct other listing more to their liking.

- A. Principles related to personnel participation and right relationships for resolving conflicts in educational thought and practice concerning goals of education, the nature of the educative process, the policies of the system, the application of these policies, and so on
 1. All persons must be dealt with as human beings, eager to find opportunities for self-realization in all aspects of their lives.¹
 2. Participation in group thinking is an essential way of releasing the creative intelligence of individuals.
 3. Every member of an organization should have the right and opportunity to contribute his ideas about the improvement of the functioning of the organization, just as far as his willingness and capacity go.
 4. The best guarantee of collective efficiency and power is the liberation and use of the diversity of individual capacities in initiative, planning, and foresight.
 5. An organization in which the use of all that is best in everyone is encouraged will release these individual capacities to a higher degree.
 6. There is a letdown of the application of human energy which will draw out the full potential of human capacity unless right conditions for personal relationships exist.
 7. The discussion method is best for settling human difficulties.²
 8. The adequate use of research information coordinated with individual and group thinking is essential to the high quality of the product of liberated workers.
 9. A high morale—that spirit which expresses itself in enthusiasm, loyalty to a cause, cooperation, professional spirit, pride in the quality of work—does not develop spontaneously out of group relationships in a given working environment. Even with adequate college training, a high degree of intelligence, and excellent institutional arrangements, such as the service motive, security of tenure, fair treatment in the matter of salary, it is not enough; more is needed and the needed item can be designated as responsible, inspiring leadership.³
 10. Progressive teachers do not have the right to a thousand contrasting ideas about their goals, the nature of the learning process, and policies. The existence of such conflicting ideas is due to poor preservice training, inadequate in-service growth, inadequate administrative and

¹ W. E. Mosher, and J. D. Kingsley, *Public Personnel Administration*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1936, p. 472.

² *Effective Educational Leadership*. Sixth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Director of Education, National Educational Association. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933, pp. 93-94.

³ W. E. Mosher and J. D. Kingsley, *op. cit.*, p. 471.

supervisory leadership, and faulty organization for resolving these conflicts.¹

11. The most effective test of the progress of a group is the ability of that group to cooperate.²
- B. Principles relating to adequacy of channels for adjusting professional grievances and alleviating the effects of personal maladjustments³
1. The principle of absolutism cannot stand in a society that has established the principle of democracy in politics.
 2. In the modern world it is a desirable social policy to allow the employees a voice in determining the conditions of service.
 3. Only by instilling an attitude of cooperation and a feeling of mutual participation in a great service enterprise can the public administrator hope to energize the potentialities of his staff.
 4. Additional machinery is necessary beyond the plan of personal contact by the supervising officers, for many grievances may be felt against the operating officer himself, in which case they would usually not be taken to him, but allowed to remain and rankle.
- C. Principles related to specific teacher-supervisor relationships
1. In so far as we have any control over education, the direction of that control is determined largely by what teachers value in the way of child development.
The vital, operative, action-determining objectives are those that are embedded in the nervous system of the teachers and expressed in their daily classroom activities.
 2. To say that there is a specific way or subject through which a given major value must be realized would be to interfere with the individual's effectiveness as a teacher; it would stultify the teacher's intelligence.⁴
 3. Supervision for creative teaching consists in helping teachers to set up for themselves teaching objectives which are, for them, dynamic, reasonable, worth while; in helping them to achieve these objectives; and in assuring them adequate securities, approvals, and rewards for their endeavors.
 4. It is a slow process: practice, study, discussions, conferences.⁵
- D. Principles related to plans for recognition of the services and contributions of personnel
1. Praising and recognizing improvement is a fundamental psychological principle of releasing creative intelligence.
 2. Developing the feeling of "belongingness" to an organization is a fundamental source of releasing latent capacity.
 3. The adjustment of individuals through assignments of work in which they can succeed and make contributions to the organization, is essential to liberating intelligence.

¹ H. G. Wells, *The Anatomy of Frustration*, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936, Chapter I.

² John Stuart Mill, quoted by Mosher and Kingsley, *op. cit.*, p. 471.

³ W. E. Mosher, and J. D. Kingsley, *op. cit.*, pp. 479-492.

⁴ *Effective Instructional Leadership*, Sixth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933, pp. 7-20.

⁵ *Supervision and the Creative Teacher*, Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932, pp. 22-28.

4. Associating accountability with freedom to do a job will stimulate latent capacities and give stability of the personality for right directions of effort.
- E. Principles related to right general human relationships among all persons involved in the organization's process, including the teacher, his special co-workers, the principal, the superintendent, parents, board of education members, and others
 1. Standards for criticism of the creative act should be taught to all persons involved.¹
 2. The test of any organization is to be found in the quality of the human contacts fostered by it.
 3. The condition for releasing capacity is freedom with accountability.
 4. The organization should place a premium upon insight and ingenuity in devising means; whether they are officials or not, all who have a contribution to make to the advancement of the group objective should have an opportunity to be heard. The leader must be willing to shine in the reflected glory of the members of the organization.²

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS FOR REMOVING FRUSTRATIONS AND THUS DEVELOPING MORALE

Based upon an analysis of frustrations, irritations, and blocks, made in the light of the principles set down, the following recommendations are made. The list is not presented as complete or perfect. Furthermore, because of the circumstances of the study, the list is based only partially on the cooperative thinking of all members of the teaching staff involved. It is hoped that such recommendations may lead, with the writers and with others, to larger group planning and action. The most complete and effective plans for developing morale will grow out of the total cooperative thinking of the group.

As will be apparent upon reading, many of the recommendations are for conditions in small school systems since the study was carried on in such a system. Large cities may use some of these but will need to develop others.

- A. Plans related to participation and right relationships for resolving conflicts in educational thought and practice
 1. Organize professional study groups with adequate standards of operation.
 2. Organize central coordinating conferences to give stability, unity, and major purpose to the local study groups.
 3. Work out a definite channel for receiving, hearing, discussing conflicts in policies and practices, and amending previously established policies and regulations.

¹ *Supervision and the Creative Teacher*, op. cit., pp. 3-40.

² *Effective Instructional Leadership*, op. cit., pp. 131-140.

4. Create for administrative officers and the use of the personnel a loose leaf administrative code to be continually brought up to date.
 5. Organize and develop a representative teachers' policy conference with regular meetings, a definite program related to the functioning of educational policies of the organization, and representative teachers elected by their own number.
 6. Organize an administrative council of the administrative officers of the system for the discussion of conflicting administrative problems with definite records of their proceedings kept and distributed.
 7. Plan and carry out educational conferences between educational leaders and the members of the board of education for the purpose of interpreting to them the progress and needs of the schools.
 8. Plan and direct educational conferences with panel discussions for citizen leaders of the community for the purpose of interpreting the purposes, progress, and the needs to them.
 9. Direct the more effective use of the preconference in connection with the special educational guidance program.
 10. Direct a more extensive use of the findings of research to give the personnel involved adequate facts to help them resolve their individual and group conflicts.
 11. Work out a more effective and complete plan of having the board of education participate in the major establishment of policies and resolving major problems.
- B. Plans related to the channels for adjusting professional grievances and alleviating the effects of personal maladjustments
1. Consider the personal problems of employees and parents at meetings held by the superintendent in each school zone for a day three or four times a year.
 2. Direct the research department to make a study of the present status and needs for clerical services for instructional personnel.
 3. Direct the research department to make a study of the cost of reducing the pupil-teacher ratio to 33, to give reasonable and adequate clerical services to teachers, to study the cost of reducing the time which teachers have during the day with children with a view toward allowing more adequate time for essential interviews and planning, to determine the cost of adjusting the basic salary in terms of the changing costs of living.
 4. Work out more adequately objective measures with standards for the distribution of supplies, extra service funds, equipment, and so on, in order to eliminate feelings of partiality; and to develop further through conference groups the newer concept of equality.
 5. Organize an administrative committee for the reviewing of complaints, hearing grievances, and making recommendations for action to the superintendent in connection with the administration of the salary policy.
 6. In connection with changes in assignment of teachers among the several schools, work out adequate standards for making the changes objectively and make it possible for the superintendent to give each dissatisfied teacher a personal and private hearing.

- C. Plans related to the adequacy of specific supervisory relationships
 - 1. To select one or more principals who have general background and aptitude to experiment with the application of the principles developed in this report for creative supervision.
 - 2. To think through, study, and apply the technique and principles of the teacher-principal relationships developed in this report, under principles relating to creative supervision at regular meetings of the superintendent with all supervisory officers.
 - 3. To work out a plan for group supervision in addition to the teacher-principal relationships.
 - 4. To study a plan for the effective use of special educational consultants.
- D. Plans related to the adequate recognition of contributions and appropriate rewards for unusual meritorious efforts
 - 1. Direct the study and application by the personnel of the plans included in a recent study¹ made at Inglewood, California.
 - 2. Direct all studies of reasonable merit made by the personnel to be presented before some central conference and/or superintendent personally for adequate appreciation, recognition, and wholesome criticism.
 - 3. Direct that all studies of reasonable merit be announced in the regular monthly bulletin to personnel issued by the superintendent, giving credit to the author.
 - 4. Present to the board of education for its understanding and commendation certain major contributions of the personnel.
 - 5. Mimeograph or publish, depending upon the maturity of the report, written contributions to educational thought and practice in the system.
 - 6. Direct that the teachers' policy conference and/or the administrative council and/or the board of education hear, discuss, and consider written reports which have definite recommendations for final action and incorporation into the code of policies.
 - 7. Direct that the channels be kept open for definite proposed changes in policies and regulations to be presented by any individual to administrative officers personally, to the teachers' policy conference, or to the administrative council for consideration and adoption.
 - 8. Work out more effective and comprehensive plans for recognizing the contributions, the services of the board of education, and the administration of the growth and development of the schools.
 - 9. Organize more effective personnel records with a file of their contributions to the credit of each.
- E. Plans related to right, general human relationships among all persons involved, including the teacher, his immediate co-workers, the principal, the superintendent, the board of education, parents, and other citizens
 - 1. To construct plans for the application of the democratic process for unifying the participation and contributions of all of these persons to the improvement of conditions in the area of personal relationship, rather than a majority of them at the exclusion of some of the groups.

¹ Lionel D. De Silva, "A Critical Study of the Plan for Recognizing Merit on the Basis of Function." Educational Research Department, Inglewood Public Schools. (Mimeographed.)

2. To work out an adequate attitude toward critics of the organization; freedom for critics but not without accountability for the consequences of their acts.
3. To formulate a more effective procedure for receiving criticisms and using the content of the criticism among personnel and patrons.
4. To develop unity of general purpose, solidarity in action, enthusiasm in spirit among the professionally-minded members of the organization and citizens who have the courage to face the problems of change, scientifically but with human understanding and conservatively but with a forward movement.
5. To develop a special guidance conference procedure, on an adult level, for critical pupil-teacher-parent frustration cases.

FURTHER STUDY SUGGESTED

As stated at the beginning, this article deals only with interferences with morale growing out of administrative and supervisory policy. Other items susceptible to and greatly needing study are the effects on morale of adequate or inadequate personnel and material, desirable or undesirable physical conditions in which to work, size of load, attitude of community, health factors, and the like.

The present study made no check on the frequency of the interferences listed and this could be analyzed, particularly in large systems where conditions would vary from area to area.

A study could be made of the frustrations of parents about the progress of their children in school. This is, of course, indirectly but powerfully a part of any study of teacher morale.

A final and most important study would be an experimental inquiry into the effects of certain proposed remedies when these have been installed and operated over a period of time.

NEW EMPHASES IN PRIMARY CURRICULUM

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The process of modernization has been going on so long in the primary school that there is danger of a deadly complacency settling upon the primary teacher. Particularly is she in danger because she hears at every professional meeting the familiar paean of praise concerning her understanding of the nature and needs of children and her superiority as a classroom technician in adapting instruction to their interests and maturity. She is told that teachers become progressively less able in these respects as they serve childhood and youth at higher levels and that apparently an all time "low" is reached on the college level.

Without any desire to disparage the work of the teacher, who has chosen as her area of service the period of early childhood education, one sometimes wonders on how extensive an experience the judgment of the speaker is based or if perhaps he has heard this expansive statement and liked the roll of it on his tongue. At any rate, there is no room for complacency in the professional thinking of any earnest primary teacher. The more aware she is of the rapidity of change in the program for early childhood education, the more she recognizes the need to set about the work of reconstructing her practices.

IMPORTANCE OF READINESS

The many research studies made in relation to readiness for learning has modified the entire primary school curriculum. There is increasing recognition of the importance of permitting children to reach an appropriate stage of adjustment before instruction is given. Much of the previous record of failure in the first grade has been justly attributed to the premature teaching of reading. Beginning instruction in reading is not only being delayed but the initial instruction is being introduced more gradually and more informally. The transition between home and school activities are much less abrupt.

In most progressive schools, the teaching of the skills of reading and arithmetic is being delayed and increasing emphasis is being placed upon those informal experiences and activities which build a background and a need for them. Formerly there was a tendency to crowd into the primary years most of the skills, now, there is a tendency to distribute these skills over a longer period and to provide an opportunity for enriching the content of the primary grades.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE CONCEPT OF READINESS

If the curriculum load in relation to the teaching of the skills is to be lightened in all the primary grades, if the skills are to be introduced when children manifest readiness, some significant changes must occur in practice. The concept of readiness invalidates traditional grade standards. If children are taught to read when they are physiologically and psychologically ready, a few will begin in the first grade, more in the second, and possibly a few should not begin until the third. Teachers must rid their thinking of preconceived notions of what the teacher in the second grade "should teach" and realize that to be effective she must teach in terms of the abilities and needs of her particular group.

Greater responsibilities are being placed upon the primary teacher for making individual study and diagnosis the basis for her instruction. A problem of an intensely practical nature is inherent in the work of educational diagnosis. How shall the teacher come to know all she should know about an individual child in order to adjust instruction to his needs? The traditional "case study" technique obviously has many limitations because while the teacher laboriously made her "case studies" of forty children, the objects of her solicitation would be "gone with the wind." Her exploration of background, interests, capacities and needs must of necessity go on in connection with the daily life of the children in the classroom. Some guidance could be given teachers in recognizing significant characteristics and in providing situations in which these significant characteristics are revealed. Professional groups could well direct their energies to suggesting a practical plan by which teachers may study a group of children. Such a plan would not be unworthy if it could not utilize all the techniques of the psychological laboratory. The plan developed should be evaluated in terms of its usefulness in guiding the teacher quickly and effectively to an understanding of her group.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR NEW EMPHASES IN THE PRIMARY CURRICULUM

In deciding what new emphases shall be given in the primary curriculum, the needs of the children should be the major concern. The young child needs an environment he can enjoy, an environment planned in terms of his developmental needs, an environment that affords a variety of opportunities to satisfy individual differences. He needs an environment that safeguards and promotes his physical health and vigor, that gives him every opportunity to develop sound health habits and attitudes.

The young child needs an environment which provides opportunity to enrich his sensory experiences—things to touch, see, manipulate, smell, hear and taste, in order that his sense perceptions may become more acute. He needs opportunity to develop his language powers by hearing good language spoken and by being free to express himself freely. He needs opportunity to express himself in appropriate graphic and plastic materials.

His environment should provide him with opportunity to see relationships in the life about him, to understand cause and effect. It should stimulate his thinking and give him a chance to put his ideas into action. It should encourage him to discover problems and seek increasingly better solutions for them. It should encourage him to persevere in tasks he has undertaken even against difficulty and discouragement. It should provide tasks in which the child may experience success.

The school should provide many avenues by means of which the child may experience beauty. Stories, poems, pictures, music, nature and all the other media the child may need to develop his feeling for beauty should be richly provided for him.

He should be provided with an environment in which he learns to make successful adjustments to others, an environment in which he feels a sense of emotional security. He needs assurance of sympathy, kindness, love, and companionship in his relationships. He needs particularly confidence in the adults who themselves create an important part of his environment. The environment in which children live must stimulate interests and provide the means for satisfying them.

The needs of a child are many if he is to achieve the realization of his potentialities, but with this beginning of an analysis, it is safe to launch into a more specific catalogue of experiences which should receive major emphasis in the primary school.

Social Experiences. The progressive primary school is centering its activities around the child's immediate environment. Simple excursions into the neighborhood extend the child's experience, broaden and deepen his understanding of the forces at work in his world, and help him to build the social attitudes essential to good citizenship.

Nearly every primary classroom has become a place where children are recreating the life of the community. By means of their construction and dramatic play, they are orienting themselves to the world of which they are a part. The activities in the classroom simplify their complex prototypes in the world to the level of the child's understanding; they extend and clarify his understanding as to the way social institutions work.

The immediate responsibility before primary teachers is the selection of learning experiences of fundamental value. Every learning experience should be examined to see that it affords the most favorable opportunity for child growth. It must help the child to grow in social understanding. It must provide the situation in which children learn to live harmoniously together. It must foster willingness on the part of the individual to consider the welfare of the group and at the same time, it must foster group concern for the happiness and welfare of the individual. The teacher must determine what are the worth-while social concepts which can be developed in connection with these learning experiences.

Science Experiences. Another area of greater emphasis in the primary curriculum of the future is science. Many studies reveal children's interests in this field. Craig's¹ study reveals that the choice of children in science content is totally unlike that of adults. Interests tend to coincide with adult interests as children grow older.

The interests of young children center in activity rather than intellectual interests. The young child is interested in moving things for which he can provide the motive power; he is interested in the pets he may care for, the garden he may plant and watch grow. The eagerness of the child to find out how things are made and how they work should be preserved as the best basis for the development of a scientific attitude.

Science experiences offer a welcome relief from a too-bookish educational program for elementary school children not only in the primary but on other levels. Science affords the child the opportunity for direct observation, for experimenting and finding out. It develops attitudes of willingness to accept scientific evidence and it eliminates superstition born of ignorance. It develops a love of beauty and a desire to conserve intelligently the resources of the natural environment; it stimulates interest in an area rich in lifelong satisfactions.

It is difficult to predict the exact trend the teaching of science will take. The major learning experience which engages the interest of a group of children should be thoroughly explored for science content by the teacher. What science concepts may be established in connection with the interests centering around home and community life? A vast area for valuable study is indicated here in listing the specific science concepts, suitable materials, activities and experiments which should be drawn from the field of science to enrich the curriculum units of the primary school.

¹G. S. Craig, *Certain Techniques Used in Developing a Course of Study in Science for the Horace Mann Elementary School*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927, p. 21.

The science interests which children display should not be disregarded, however, because they do not relate immediately to the curriculum unit. The school program should be sufficiently flexible to provide a balanced experience in which the social and scientific aspects of environment are considered equally important.

Teachers have evidenced reluctance in relation to science because of their own inadequate background in the field. The primary teacher's service to young children will be immeasurably enriched as she prepares herself to meet the needs of children for scientific information. Publishers are giving increasing attention to science, summer classes of a practical nature are becoming more available, and the publication by the State Department of Education of the Science Guide for Elementary Schools is providing California teachers with a wealth of basic material in nontechnical form.

Creative Expression. The creative arts suggest another area of major emphasis in the new primary curriculum. In every child there is some capacity for creative expression. In some it is present in great measure, others are less well-endowed. In every school, there appears now and then unusual ability, perhaps even authentic genius. The school must provide ways and means to capitalize these abilities for the common advantage. It is tragic to attempt to estimate the number of potential artists who have been thwarted and wasted in an environment lacking in sympathy, understanding and opportunity for expression.

For the child of no special talent, there is emotional and intellectual growth in his endeavors at creative expression. The appreciations he develops make him a better citizen capable of contributing to the total culture of the society of which he is a part and competent to recognize and protect genuine contributions to artistic achievement.

The whole of life would be indescribably dreary were it not for the realization of the immortality of beauty. Through the beauty of poetry and drama, of music, of painting and sculpture, of architecture, we can achieve unity with the spiritual and cultural wealth of the world accumulated through the efforts of poets, artists and musicians in countless yesterdays of human striving. Through beauty, man transmits his highest ideals. Through his creation of beauty he achieves an immortality too certain to admit of question.

Schools have too long neglected to equip children for the enjoyment and use of beauty. The new primary school must begin the great work which gives vitality to life. Education through creative expression is becoming accepted practice. Realization is spreading that growth occurs as children express or try to express their latent capacities and aptitudes.

Emphasis in the field of English must be upon the creative and not the formal. Music does not begin with notes and the names of keys but with satisfying musical experiences. Art does not rely on dictated art principles but upon bringing children close to life and nature. Bodily rhythms are not dictated motions but express the real inner spirit of the child. The aim in all these fields should be to have children create freely from the experiences and images they have in their minds. Creation, rather than reproduction of experiences, is one key to the new curriculum.

Rockwell Kent has recently given a new definition of the meaning of beauty:

Man looked about him and perceived the order of the universe: the course of falling stars, of waterfalls, how growing things reach upward to the sun, the curve of slender windblown trees, the accustomed movement of all living things. He perceived the movement and proportion of mankind. He heard the sound of the wind in the leaves, the song of birds, the laughter of children at play. He saw bright colored flowers and was drawn to smell their perfume. Red fruits attracted him for they were different from the forest green; he touched and tasted them. He everywhere perceived an ordered universe with law prevailing; and he was pleased and comforted by the entire aspect of his world for he was of it, tuned by his nature to its harmonies and rhythms—so sensitively tuned that violation of them hurt. Man gave the name of beauty to what pleased him.¹

It is toward these realities that primary education must look for guidance in the future. The restraints of an overcrowded primary curriculum have been mercifully lifted. The teacher has before her the opportunity to fill their place with dynamic values.

¹ Kent Rockwell, *Rockwellkentiana*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1933, p. 6. Quoted by permission of the publisher.

A CURRICULUM UNIT: CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES

MARGARET NEAGLE, *Teacher, San Marcos Emergency Elementary School, Santa Barbara County*¹

To teach the child to love nature, to consider the welfare of his neighbor, to employ wisely his goodly heritage of natural resources, and to pass this heritage as intact as prudent use allows to the next generation—that is the goal of conservation education. Children can understand many of the appealing facts about conservation. Even very young pupils can participate in conservation activities.²

The statement serves to illustrate two important aspects of the unit of work reported here. First, it illustrates the richness of content of conservation study; secondly, it stresses the possibility of extending conservation education to all grades of the elementary school. These considerations were fundamental to the teaching of a unit of conservation of natural resources in a one-teacher school throughout an entire school year.

THE SITUATION

The San Marcos Emergency Elementary School is a one-teacher school situated in the Los Padres National Forest twenty-one miles north of Santa Barbara. A consideration of the natural environment of the school will indicate how the unit of work grew out of an interaction between the child and his surroundings.

There is near the school no community in the organized sense of the word. The people who live there are engaged either in forestry or ranching. Immediately opposite the schoolhouse is the Santa Ynez Ranger Station and the central warehouses for the Civilian Conservation Corps Camps of Los Padres National Forest. Sixteen miles above the school is Gibraltar Dam which is the impounding reservoir for the water supply of the city of Santa Barbara.

The school building itself is rather limited in space and in equipment; but the school grounds are spacious, and during good weather this outdoor space was used.

The enrollment of the school is generally well distributed throughout the eight grades. During the year 1936 and 1937 there were children in every grade except the third and the sixth. The ages of the pupils ranged from six to fourteen years. The enrollment fluctuated between twelve and twenty-one.

¹ Adapted from an address given at a regional conference of the California Elementary School Principals' Association at Santa Maria, February 5, 1938.

² Effie G. Bathhurst, "Progress in Teaching Conservation," *School Life*, XXIII (October, 1937), 41.

INITIATION OF THE UNIT

The inauguration of the unit of work on Conservation of Our Natural Resources was based upon a consideration of the children's interests in aspects of their environment. When they came back to school after the long summer vacation, they were given much opportunity to discuss their activities during the vacation period. They were all anxious to describe forest fires which some of their parents helped to fight. Some of the children had visited the actual scenes of these fires. Further evidence of interest in conservation was seen during the free-play period at noon. The smaller children saw the playground as a giant forest threatened by terrific flames whose danger was removed only by their heroic efforts as United States Forest Service men!

The older children were more interested in issues of the coming election, the outcome of which might have important bearing upon their livelihood. This interest had been aroused by the fact that many of their parents were federal employees.

The second day of school the discussion of the summer's events was continued; and the children from the first through the fifth grades asked questions, such as "What do the Forest Service men do first when they get to a fire?" "What makes the fire move so fast?" A suggestion was made that the group might go to the Ranger Station and get some information. The children decided to list questions to ask the forest ranger on the visit the next morning; and in the process of listing these, new aspects of the Forest Service work were discovered. One child said that Forest Service men do more than fight fires; they build roads and plant trees too. A lengthy list of questions and a class story for the primary grades on the proposed trip resulted from the discussion. The upper grades continued their plans for a unit on How We Vote.

BUILDING A RANGER STATION

The visit to the ranger station resulted in the acquisition of much new data concerning forest fires, how they are started, how controlled, and the damage resulting from devastating flames. The fourth and fifth grades became very much interested in a study of types of fires and the use of definite techniques in their control. The end of the first week saw a strongly developed interest in forest conservation, leading the fourth- and fifth-grade children into a study of the conservation of natural resources and plans by the first and second grades for the building of a ranger station on the school grounds where they could carry on forestry activities. Inasmuch as all planning and

evaluation of the day's work was done with the entire school assembled, each child's contributions and problems were shared by the others.

When the first and second grades were at a loss to know what size to build their ranger station, suggestions came from the others to use a scale plan. The intermediate grades promptly cooperated with the primary group in making these plans. Questions were often referred to the children in the upper grades. They showed a readiness to help and a pardonable pride in knowing how to solve some of these problems.

The children decided upon a scale plan of two inches for every foot of the actual buildings. This was an easy concept for the smaller children because it involved a simple doubling of the number of actual feet to find out how many inches they needed. It meant too, of course, that actual measurements must be taken. The primary and intermediate grades immediately assumed the responsibility for these measurements which they carefully recorded in a class book. The rest of the work period was spent in changing these measurements to their scale plan. Then actual plans on paper were made before work was started. During this period of planning for construction activities, the intermediate grades devoted their regular reading period to a further study of the work of the Forest Service men. During each day's evaluation, construction plans and information derived from reading were discussed. This was of great value to the smaller children. The material presented by the older pupils was so tangible in its content that the primary children could grasp it. As a result, their cooperative stories were often rich in actual conservation material. They, too, could talk about types of fires, how roots hold the soil, how fires destroy these roots, how insects can harm plant life, and many other aspects of the problem.

THE INTEREST OF THE OLDER CHILDREN

During these planning and evaluation periods, the seventh- and eighth-grade pupils were taking an active part. They obviously were interested. Their own unit of work was nearing completion. They had enjoyed it, yes—but they had been enjoying the others' work more. Finally one day, when the fourth and fifth grades were having a struggle with some phase of their construction, the seventh- and eighth-grade children entered enthusiastically into the discussion and asked if they might not work outside with the others. "We can show them if we have the materials," they said. Permission was granted and the day's work was a success. When they came in to evaluate their work, the seventh- and eighth-grade children asked if

they might not go on working with the others. They suggested aspects of conservation not yet studied by the others: the building of dams of various types, the importance of watershed areas, and what soil conservation means in agricultural communities. Their suggestions were welcomed and they planned a research period for themselves. A week of research resulted in plans for the building of a dam. This was now the second week in October, and during the remainder of the year the entire school worked on the problem of Conservation of Our Natural Resources.

The Warehouse. The further research done by seventh- and eighth-grade pupils brought forth new questions concerning water conservation and the building of dams. A fifth-grade boy suggested that one of the men at the warehouse across from the school might answer the questions. This man was daily engaged in sending out supplies and crews of men to work on projects such as the group was discussing. A visit to the warehouse was planned to find out more about this branch of the Forest Service work. The following day the men conducted the children through all of the warehouses.

After the visit the children went over their questions and discussed the things they had seen. They then decided that they needed the central warehouse at least. The work planned at the ranger station and at the Forestry Service headquarters was carried out through the warehouse; therefore it seemed an essential part of their plan. Again measurements were taken and reduced to a scale, drawings made of each section, and work was begun on the construction of a warehouse.

MATERIALS

The children scoured the countryside for materials, since only five tools were possessed by the school. They became expert scavengers, but by this time the whole community was interested, and tools were easily borrowed. The children even helped in obtaining reading materials. They found some excellent pamphlets, maps of forest areas, magazine and newspaper articles.

While discussing some of the reading on the various branches of the work of the forest service, the children mentioned the Lookout Tower as an important part of the service. Further questions concerning the duties of the Lookout man resulted in a visit to the Lookout nearby.

CONSERVATION OF WILDLIFE

In the month of November, hunting season in the area opened. This stimulated reading in regard to a conservation of wildlife, and

a study of the principle of balance of nature in relation to soil, water, trees, plants, and animal life. Creative work resulting from this study was shown in music, art, and poetry.

EROSION BY WATER

During the rainy season of December and January, much of the work had to be done in the schoolroom. The rain had raised new problems for discussion. The dam had been filled, silt deposits were left, and in many places the field was cut by small ravines. Concentrated reading was done on "Soil Erosion by Water," and this proved to be one of the most interesting phases of the conservation study.

Observation of the work outside showed a need for culverts in the road through the miniature ranger station. One of the eighth-grade girls whose father was a surveyor and a road builder for the forest service volunteered to get some information on types of open-top culverts used in forest roads. This material was presented to the class, and the primary children built an open-top culvert in the road through their station.

The heavy rains served to keep alive the problem of the carrying and cutting power of water. The children came to school with clippings on soil erosion in farming areas resulting from recent storms. The teacher told them of a place not far from the school where the government was carrying on a soil conservation project in a farming area. They were much interested, and a trip was immediately planned.

This excursion took the group to the Lompoc CCC Camp to see work in soil conservation. Several different ways of combating soil erosion were observed. The children were especially interested in the check dams erected across ditches. These were constructed out of cement, and the work had been done by CCC boys. They saw different types of plowing and cultivation designed to prevent erosion of the soil. They were taken to a field where water erosion had cut a deep canyon. The children were amazed by the power of water and also by the simple devices which can curb this power.

When they returned to school, the children relived what they had seen in drawings, stories, and poems. A second-grade girl said she thought some roots should be planted in the yard around the ranger station to keep the soil from being washed away. This led to interesting experiments in soil conservation in the schoolyard.

The Protection of Watersheds. The forest service men had become so much interested in the children's work that they invited the group to go to Mono Dam, a recently completed silt dam. The children were thrilled with the beauty of this dam and were surprised to see

the amount of silt deposited above it. The importance of protection of watershed areas was clearly shown. This trip resulted in much creative work by the children.

Further research and construction activities on soil conservation, a study of wild animals and flowers, and a study of the work of the Forest Products Laboratory brought the year's work to a close.

TOPICS INCLUDED IN THE UNIT

A forestry community with its ranger station, its warehouse, a dam, roads, culverts, and a garden, had been completed. Reading and investigation had taken the children into an exhaustive study of the following topics:

- I. Forest fires
 - A. Types: ground, surface, crown
 - B. Causes of forest fires
 - C. Losses due to fires
 - D. Means of prevention and control
 1. Federal and state control
 2. Responsibility of individuals
- II. Soil erosion
 - A. How it is allied with disastrous fires
 - B. Causes and kinds of erosion: wind, sun, water
 - C. How can soil erosion be prevented?
- III. Conservation of wild life
 - A. What is meant by the balance of nature
 - B. How man has upset the balance of nature
 - C. How animal life can be safeguarded
 - D. Conservation of wild flowers and other plant life
 1. Aesthetic value of these
 2. How this natural beauty can be protected
- IV. Products of the forest
 - A. Lumber
 - B. Chemical
 - C. Paper and how it is made
- V. How a tree grows
 - A. Effect of sun, moisture, and gravity
 - B. Principles of scientific forestry
- VI. Organization and work of the Forest Service

All types of available written material on the subjects had been exhausted, but the field of conservation had by no means been exhausted for study. The children had learned to conceive it as a living problem, changing from day to day, increasing in its complexity, and

vitaly important to all citizens because it deals with the natural life about them.

USE OF ARITHMETIC SKILLS IN THIS UNIT

This unit of work was rich in arithmetic experience. The children found that they could not even begin to build a house without first making a plan. This meant measuring the buildings, reducing inches to feet, and then changing these dimensions to the scale size. There was constant practice in the use of the ruler and yardstick. From the second grade through the eighth there was frequent use of the fraction of the inch, foot, and yard.

In order to get posts perpendicular and corners truly square, there was constant use of the square. In laying large dimensions on the ground the children used a string compass to erect perpendiculars. They used the Pythagorean principle to determine whether or not their corners were square.

The children had to make use of a miter box to cut the window moulding. They learned what a right angle is and how to bisect angles. They acquired skill in the use of a protractor and a compass.

When it was necessary to estimate the amount of paint needed, they learned how to find areas of flat and curved surfaces. To find how much cement was needed for steps, paths, floors, and the dam they learned how to find volumes of solids. In order to buy a few simple materials they had to plan how to spend money wisely.

This group of children really learned what a board foot is and how to find the number of board feet in a log.

In measuring there was repeated use of fractions and formulas, and the names of geometric figures of all types were learned. They had them in the buildings they had constructed. Triangles were found at the top of the sides of the houses; the sides themselves were rectangles, and some of the windows were true squares.

In the study of soil erosion by water, statistics were used giving the average run-off of an area and the amount of silt carried by streams. The visit to the Lookout Tower included a study of the instruments used in locating fires.

However, it was not the number of different types of arithmetic activities that was valuable; but the constant practical use of the most simple arithmetic techniques that was so worth while. The children used rulers and formulas so that they were not aware that they were doing "problems" generally wrapped up in the glaring covers of a red arithmetic book.

USE OF LANGUAGE ARTS

Language and creative arts experiences were numerous. The simple listing of questions and making of reports gave constant use in written and oral speech. The telling of class stories and the day-by-day summarizing of work accomplished was excellent language experience. This summary of the day's activities was done by the whole group and was kept throughout the year. The children stated the way in which they wished to record their work, and a copy of the report was kept by a second-grade child. Each day's planning meant the listing of tools and materials needed by the child for his work. Primary children kept their lists, too, and learned to write the names of things which they needed.

All of the spelling was taken from words needed in writing poems, stories, reports, and tool lists. Each child kept his own list, and these lists contained a fairly complete and comprehensive vocabulary.

Creative expression in poetry and stories was abundant. The children found it easy to write about the things around them. They could see and enjoy the wildlife, trees, flowers, and mountains; thus these aspects of their surroundings entered naturally into their creative expression. The entire school worked together on poems which were used for choral speaking. The events which prompted the writing of much of their poetry were the excursions. The trip to the Lookout resulted in the writing of a class poem. During this trip the children were given some time to freely examine and explore the hillside. They came to a steep incline which seemed a choice place to roll rocks. They rolled some, watched their movement, and came back shouting, "We have an idea for a poem." This poem is the outcome:

ROLLING ROCKS

Some lively boys
Set out for fun.
"Let's roll rocks;
We'll all push one."

Sliding, moving, against its will;
Now it's started down the hill.

Slowly, slowly, it picks up speed;
Faster, faster, a lively steed.

Madly, madly, it leaps and bounds;
Groaning, groaning, roaring sounds.

Bumping, jumping, crashing on;
Dragging, dragging, shrubs along.

It hits a rock
And bounces more.
And comes to rest
With a deafening roar.

During the trip to the soil erosion project the children saw a large field, the lower part of which was cut by a deep canyon. The upper part of this field had been saved by turning the cutting waters into a small wooden trough. Two eighth-grade girls told the story this way:

WATER EROSION

A yawning gorge,
A canyon wide,
With water cutting
Down each side.

This gorge was once a plain.
Cut only by the farmer's plow.
Then came a record rain
Whose work you can see now.

The upper field unharmed
Is saved for the farmer's good.

The water flows by unarm'd
Carried in a trough of wood.

Some lovely and fanciful poetry was written about the wildlife of the forests. Two short poems by an eighth-grade girl typify this work:

THE DEER'S HOME

The deer's home is the forest green
Where walls are made of bark.
His home is just a lovely scene
With sunlight piercing through the dark.

THE DEER

The deer go leaping gracefully
Through the tangle of trees.
They seem to conquer distance
With effortless ease.

HOW ART AND MUSIC WERE USED

Artistic expression was accomplished in different media: water colors, poster paint, crayons, pen and ink and pencil sketching, and some of the composition techniques of applied arts. Some unusually

beautiful water colors of wild flowers were done by a second-grade girl, and a collection of crayon drawings of wild flowers was done by an eighth-grade boy. The older boys most effectively used pencil and ink to draw the trees, animals, and even the dams visited. The entire school made conservation posters on such subjects as the forests, animals, and wild flowers. Every excursion resulted in numerous sketches which told the story of what had been seen.

In the field of music the children did some interesting work in composition of two-part songs. Generally they began with a poem written by one of them. They would work out their own melody, and then one of the older pupils would write the second part. The value of the varied ages in the group was manifested in work of this sort.

HOW READING WAS DEVELOPED

Reading material on the subject of conservation was not difficult to find. State and federal agencies have done a great deal to help the schools obtain good material on the subject. Frequently during the development of the unit, the children of middle and upper grades would concentrate on the same topic. Whenever it was impossible to get material on conservation suitable for all the grade levels, the teacher rewrote material to make it comprehensible to the smaller children.

Primary reading consisted entirely of cooperative stories. The vocabulary was extensive, and the words and phrases were of a practical nature. It was frequently surprising to see how much of value primary children gained from excursions or from the reports which they heard the older children give.

The most valuable outgrowth of the reading experiences was a healthy interest in fine books on wildlife and a true appreciation of the beauty of these books. In this regard the children were constantly contributing to the enjoyment of the others by sharing excellent books of their own.

HOW SCIENCE WAS USED

Science was the basis of this unit of work. There were the obvious scientific considerations of types of erosion, of the balance of nature, of the interaction of soil, water, wind, and gravity, and of a study of plant life. Furthermore, there was a constant use of the scientific method in solving problems. When the children were ready to use cement, they had to decide upon a certain mix. They solved this for themselves by making several small blocks of varying mixes and then testing the relative strength. When they decided to plant

a garden, they experimented with types of seeds; they wrapped them in moistened cotton and blotters and waited for them to sprout.

A study of the products of the Forest Products Laboratory showed the use of science in extracting useful products hitherto unknown. The visit to the soil conservation project and the silt dam showed again the application of scientific knowledge and techniques. The types of machinery and power used in this work were particularly interesting. The whole study increased the children's interest in science, gave them a deeper appreciation of the contributions of research, and fostered in them the development of a scientific attitude in their own work.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY IN THE UNIT

Studies in history and geography were evolved from the unit in many instances. The children carried on considerable research in early types of forestry and soil conservation in European countries. The present depleted condition of natural resources in the United States was explained to them by a survey of the way in which this country had been settled—the clearing away of forests by the early American settlers, the westward movement leaving its path of destruction of wildlife and trees, and the causes of the dust-bowl area of the Middle West.

The children found the study of geography useful in map making, in a study of the forest areas, and in the location and study of the effect of streams upon the topography of the country. The most valuable experience here, however, was the development of an understanding of the effect of geographic conditions upon man's way of living. The study of the effect of streams upon their own landscape made the concept of a contour map much more intelligible to the children.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF HABITS, ATTITUDES, AND APPRECIATIONS

This unit built for the child a set of appreciations which, in the judgment of the teacher, seem to be lasting. The children discovered real beauty in so many of the things around them; and through seeing and feeling this beauty, they were able to appreciate lovely descriptions and good imagery. The interest in good literature developed from this unit of work shows its effects in their choice of free reading. An understanding of the work of scientists, of the cooperation of government agencies, and a respect for the work of adults in their community were direct results of their year's work.

Within the classroom there were evidences of increasing cooperation, of careful planning, of willingness to accept responsibility, and of a determination to bring to a conclusion any work which they started. These work habits thus begun are being exemplified in the work of the children a year later.

Finally the attitude most strongly developed was that of accepting individual responsibility in a matter of great consequence both to the community and to the nation.

TESTS AND THEIR PLACE IN THE PROGRESSIVE PROGRAM

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In considering the relationship of standardized tests to the progressive educational program, there are several considerations which require definition. Among these are the meaning and significance of the progressive program, the purpose and types of standardized tests now available for use, and the place of objective methods in educational diagnosis and direction of learning.

THE PROGRESSIVE PROGRAM

For purposes of this discussion, it is assumed that the progressive program is one which emphasizes the following points of view:

1. Learning situations will be provided which are suitable to the maturation level of the children, as well as being in harmony with the social objectives of education.
2. Attention will be given to the developmental needs of children in the process of their adjustment to their physical and social environment.
3. Interest will be utilized as the motive for desirable pupil activities and experiences.
4. In the foregoing processes, the teacher is essentially a "director of learning," who will utilize scientific methods of diagnosis and apply techniques which have demonstrated their usefulness and efficiency in furthering the purposes of education.
5. The aim is that each individual acquire facts, skills, and appreciations which will enable him to cope successfully with life problems and thus achieve a maximum of individual development and social participation and adjustment.

Without doubt, the progressive program requires that teachers and school administrators take advantage of professional devices which will increase their efficiency and expedite the attainment of their purposes.

Among the major problems confronting the teacher as "director" of the progressive program are (1) determining the capacities and aptitudes of each pupil, (2) assuring a reasonable mastery of the tools of learning suitable to grade assignment and mental maturity, and (3) evaluating progress in other essential elements of the educational program.

THE SETTING

It must be remembered that teacher direction of the progressive program is conducted in a situation which may interfere with the accomplishment of the purposes as set forth above. Among conditions characteristic of most public school organization and administration which are apt to interfere are:

1. A grade classification of pupils which many teachers and administrators falsely assume to indicate that pupils may be expected to know certain facts and to have mastered certain skills. Innumerable investigations have thoroughly demonstrated that the grade assignment of a pupil has practically no validity as an indicator of pupil ability or accomplishment. On the basis of several hundred educational surveys directed by the writer, it has been found that only about one-fourth to one-half of the pupils have grade placements or subject ages within one-half year of their grade assignment.¹ As stated by Hildreth,

Educational programs formerly assumed that all children to be instructed were similar in learning readiness and mental maturation; . . . Actually, a wide range in learning ability exists in any normal population of school children within any age group.²

2. A curriculum set forth in terms of ultimate aims or goals which cannot be achieved by any pupils. Some curriculum makers are now showing a tendency to face reality and to recognize the needs, capacities, and interests of individual pupils in terms of central tendency and variations from central tendency, as well as in terms of ultimate goals.

THE NATURE OF STANDARDIZED TESTS

Despite the fact that many persons feel that there is a mysterious halo surrounding standardized tests, these tests are actually devices which have been prepared for particular purposes. They vary in merit from being of little value to being scientific devices which contribute significantly to conducting an efficient progressive educational program.

It is needless to repeat here the general criteria of a good standardized test. It is obvious that they should be selected in terms of the purposes to be served, and that they have the necessary validity and reliability to provide the diagnosis and objective measures required in a given situation.

¹ See "Educational Survey." Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools, October, 1936. Mimeographed, pp. 48-55. Also any textbook on tests and measurements or standardized test manual.

² Gertrude Hildreth, *Learning the Three R's*. Minneapolis: Educational Publishers, Inc., 1936, p. 343.

It should also be mentioned that many school administrators are prone to continue the use of tests with which they have become familiar. Since 1930 there has been such an improvement in test construction techniques and organization of test materials (in harmony with progressive curricula and changing principles of educational psychology) that an "educational lag" is evident where obsolete measuring devices are continued to use. Some of these actually hinder the progressive program.

More specifically, tests containing quantities of material calling for recall of factual materials of doubtful significance should be avoided. Those selected should have an organization of test content which will expedite analysis and diagnosis of pupil needs; they should have reliabilities of .90 or above so that there will be a low error of estimate in the application of norms to individual cases; and they should be provided with age-grade norms which correspond with actualities in school situations.¹

The word "standardized" as applied to test interpretation is frequently misused to imply a tendency to uniformity. Results of standardized tests furnish data which indicate *variability* among pupils. They have been a major factor in assuring recognition of individual differences among pupils.

A MINIMUM RECOMMENDED PROGRAM

As previously stated, the elements in the progressive educational program which may be most readily determined by use of standardized tests relate to the measurement of pupil capacity and mastery of the tools of learning.

Recent investigations by Thurstone², Kelley³, Hotelling⁴, and others have afforded considerable information as to the nature of the mental factors in learning. Current emphasis on the biological aspects of growth and maturation in relationship to education has resulted in the production of readiness tests and diagnostic tests of mental maturity.

Reading readiness tests are particularly desirable as one factor in determining whether pupils should be inducted into the intricacies of reading at the beginning of the first grade, or whether they should have a program of basic common experiences and socializing activities

¹ An unpublished study by the writer indicates that the age-grade relationships which are given in the manuals and on the test booklets of several widely used standardized tests vary as much as one year in the ages which are assigned to given grades. Obviously, such faulty factors in test construction invalidate to a considerable extent comparisons and interpretations made on the basis of results secured.

² Louis L. Thurstone, *The Vectors of Mind*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935.

³ Truman L. Kelley, *Crossroads in the Mind of Man*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1935.

⁴ Harold Hotelling, "Analysis of a Complex of Statistical Variables Into Principal Components," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXIV (September, 1933), 417-441.

which would permit them to attain a maturity level which would insure a reasonable prospect of success.

Easily administered group reading readiness tests are the Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test¹ which may be administered by any first-grade teacher in about fifteen minutes, and the Metropolitan Readiness Test² which requires about seventy minutes of pupil time. A more comprehensive individual test, Monroe Reading Aptitude Test³ is useful for particular cases requiring special study.

The ideal of having measures of mental capacity by giving individual Binet or performance tests to each pupil has been often expressed. This, of course, is usually not practicable for most school districts. One newly-constructed group intelligence test, which is reported to correlate above .90 with individual Binet tests, provides a means of securing valid diagnostic information regarding mental factors essential in learning. This is the California Test of Mental Maturity⁴ which has been prepared in a series to include preprimary, primary, elementary, intermediate, and advanced grades. It provides both language and nonlanguage mental ages and I.Q.'s as well as measures of visual and auditory acuity, immediate and delayed recall, reasoning ability, and other mental factors which harmonize with the results of recent psychological studies. Another group mental test, the results of which provide more insight than gross scores, is the Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests.⁵ It is obvious that the progressive program will require the use of some such scientific psychological measurements as routine elements in the diagnosis of capacity and developmental needs of pupils.

Equally basic to success in adjustment to the modern academic program and to society, the symbolization of which is largely literary and mathematical, is mastery of the tools of learning. These essential skills are the frequently belittled 3 R's. The progressive program requires a reasonable mastery of these skills. Such mastery should be acquired, however, in harmony with principles of learning and mental hygiene.

In view of the fact that there is always considerable variation among pupils in the extent to which they have learned the numerous elements which constitute reading, arithmetic, and language skills, the occasional use (at least once a year) of diagnostic tests is essential. These tests should be considered as professional tools of the teacher and are analogous to the use of clinical and laboratory tests by the medical profession.

¹ California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California.

² World Book Company, Yonkers, New York.

³ Houghton-Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts.

⁴ California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California.

⁵ Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

The grade placement results for two small fifth-grade classes in typical schools are presented in Table I. It is obvious that the designation of either of these classes as "fifth grade" has very little significance as an indicator of the accomplishment of individual pupils. It is always thus, and all teachers, supervisors, and administrators should soon come to recognize that the grade assignment of a pupil furnishes little indication of his abilities, knowledges, or skills.

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS OF TEST¹ SCORES OF
TWO FIFTH-GRADE CLASSES

Grade Placement Scores	Reading Vocabulary		Reading Comprehension		Arithmetic Reasoning		Arithmetic Fundamentals		Language		Complete Test	
	Class A	Class B	Class A	Class B	Class A	Class B	Class A	Class B	Class A	Class B	Class A	Class B
2.0 to 2.9.....	4	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	2	-----	1	-----
3.0 to 3.9.....	3	-----	6	-----	6	-----	9	-----	7	-----	7	-----
4.0 to 4.9.....	8	4	7	4	9	7	8	4	8	8	8	4
5.0 to 5.9.....	1	3	4	8	3	12	1	23	1	7	3	15
6.0 to 6.9.....	3	7	2	7	1	8	-----	-----	1	9	-----	8
7.0 to 7.9.....	-----	6	-----	8	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	3	-----	-----
8.0 to 8.9.....	-----	7	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Totals.....	19	27	19	27	19	27	19	27	19	27	19	27
Median.....	4.31	6.93	4.50	6.23	4.20	5.54	3.94	5.41	4.06	5.79	4.10	5.77
Actual Grade Placement.....	5.3	5.0	5.3	5.0	5.3	5.0	5.3	5.0	5.3	5.0	5.3	5.0
Deviation from Actual Grade Placement.....	-.99	+1.93	-.80	+1.23	-.91	+.54	-1.26	+.41	-1.24	+.79	-1.11	+.77

¹ Tests used: Progressive Achievement Test, Elementary Battery, California Test Bureau, Los Angeles.

The Progressive Achievement Tests¹ have the added advantage of providing an analysis of learning difficulties which makes it relatively easy for a teacher to isolate and analyse the specific causes of difficulty in reading, arithmetic, and written expression skills.

EVALUATING OTHER ELEMENTS OF THE PROGRAM

The criteria which should apply and the methodology which should be used in evaluating the so-called "intangible" elements of the progressive program have been given much recent consideration. In the writer's opinion, there are two approaches to the solution of

¹ California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, California.

this problem. Learning situations may be considered in terms of the type and variety of exposures offered the pupil (stimuli), or in terms of the apparent effects which such offerings have in the behavior and attitudes of pupils (response).

To provide an indication of the "exposures" or opportunity for enriched experiences which have been provided for each pupil, there should be a cumulative record of the units of work, types of assignments for research or committee work and individual contributions to the achievement of group purposes. Such records show objectively whether there has been an enriched or meager opportunity for learning.

In the formal program, this type of record was cared for more or less automatically by exposure to textbooks and other materials which assured the standard variety of educational offering. Without adequate records, there is danger in the informal program that many pupils will have a limited experience due to repetition and continuation of assignments in a given field.

The measurement of response may be accomplished by observation and objective ratings by use of a standard score sheet or descriptive sampling of typical responses. Also, information, attitudes, and appreciations may be evaluated by objective measures which are comparable to standardized tests of capacity and achievement, the principal difference being in the nature of the test content.

The difficulty in the preparation of evaluation devices in this area is that the objectives of progressive education are frequently too generalized and intangible. When the question arises as to just what specific knowledge and appreciations are essential and, therefore, to be measured, the curriculum experts fail to agree. Such agreement must be arrived at before satisfactory progress will be made. A solution of the problem appears possible, if, in harmony with approved objectives, it is accepted that the process of learning, as well as the end product, is important.

The writer would conclude, therefore, that emphasis in the measurement of the emotional and cultural aspects of pupil accomplishment should consist of (1) a cumulative record of opportunities afforded each pupil, and (2) objective information regarding both the products and the functioning of learning in the processes which are employed by the individual in the solution of problems of the kind and variety required for individual enrichment and adequate social participation.¹

¹ Paul B. Diederich. "Evaluation Records," *Educational Method*, XV (May, 1936), 432-440.

CONCLUSION

In the foregoing discussion it has been the contention that the progressive program requires the use of devices which will enable the teacher to determine the capacity and degree of mastery of the tools of learning. These measures should be supplemented with objective information in the form of cumulative records, objective descriptions, and controlled measurement of other desirable personal and social outcomes. While the latter type of measurement is in the process of development and validation, the first two elements should be given adequate attention as aids in the functioning of the progressive program.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF VISUAL AND AUDITORY AIDS IN SANTA BARBARA COUNTY

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VISUAL AIDS

Teachers in the schools of Santa Barbara County who have endeavored to develop worth-while curriculum units have become keenly aware of the need for adequate visual and auditory aids to instruction. In attempting to meet the need the county superintendent of schools organized a group of administrators and teachers to study the problems involved.

A survey of the situation and an investigation relative to the cost of motion picture machines and projectors was made. Since \$500.00 was the amount of money allocated to this undertaking the purchase of expensive equipment was out of the question.

After consultation with persons experienced in the field of visual and auditory aids it seemed expedient to employ a consultant to head the program. George Stone, an instructor in photography at San Jose State College, was employed.

The emphasis in the county-wide program to be undertaken was placed upon the development of a variety of new materials to be made available to all teachers, and the more effective use of visual and auditory materials already on hand.

Flat Pictures, Photographs and Posters. The first step was the development of a file by each teacher of the materials available in their own specific situations. Group meetings were scheduled in various sections of the county, and teachers were asked to bring their own picture collections with them, and also any magazines they might have. In the meantime, a great number of magazine covers, and some issues of *Fortune* and *National Geographic* had been purchased. These were taken to each meeting and pictures from them were "auctioned off," in terms of whether or not such a picture was needed to illustrate a point in a curriculum unit under way in a particular school. This was a real education for teachers. They were able to see many more possibilities in the pictures than they had previously. The consultant gave instructions in mounting pictures, and some time was spent in critically evaluating the materials brought to the meeting by the teachers.

As these meetings progressed, teachers were fired with enthusiasm, and it was felt that a Central Committee should be formed whose

responsibility it would be to develop materials to be distributed by the county library. These would be materials which individual teachers could not afford to purchase. Ten teachers volunteered to work on this committee under the leadership of an able chairman.

The materials listed in the *Carroll-Miller List of Teaching Aids*¹ were sent for. Some of these were free, and others were procured for a nominal fee. Great care was taken in writing the letter asking for these materials. The reason for wanting them was given, and also some indication of the number of persons who would be using them. Later, a letter of appreciation was written acknowledging material received.

The consultant worked about once each month with this Central Committee, giving additional instruction where needed, evaluating what had been done, or starting some new phase of the work. Tables were made for the use of teachers in mounting large posters. To date, the group has mounted more than five hundred posters.

All of the materials were classified according to the items of the scope of the curriculum of Santa Barbara County:

1. Developing and conserving human resources
2. Developing, conserving and intelligently utilizing nonhuman resources
3. Producing, distributing and consuming goods and services
4. Communicating
5. Transporting
6. Recreating and playing
7. Expressing and satisfying spiritual and esthetic needs
8. Organizing and governing
9. Providing for education²

The reaction from the total teaching group indicated that this was a type of classification which was helpful to them. Before proceeding with each step of this program, an earnest effort was made to get the best thinking of every teacher. It was in accordance with the requests of teachers that each poster and picture was numbered and titled.

No attempt was made to classify pictures on various grade levels, since the same picture might be used on any level to clarify a concept.

In his laboratory in San Jose, the consultant developed sets of photographic materials for use in Santa Barbara County. At present he is concentrating on providing needed photographs and lantern

¹ *The Carroll-Miller List of Teaching Aids and Educational Materials from Commercial Sources.* State of California State Department of Education Bulletin, No. 20, October 15, 1935.

² *Curriculum Materials, Upper Grade Level.* County of Santa Barbara, Department of Education Bulletin, No. 13, September 1, 1937, p. 16

slides that are suggested in the integrating theme for the curriculum in the upper grades, namely:

Gaining increasing effectiveness in carrying out the basic functions of living through developing the ability and desire to react to the total environment according to a pattern which is based upon (1) an adequate understanding and appreciation of scientific principles and methods involved, (2) an understanding of the resulting increased possibilities of control, and (3) understanding of resulting rapidity of change.¹

Bookbinding. Among the materials which were received in answer to requests sent out from the office of the county superintendent of schools, were pamphlets and booklets of various sizes. In addition to these, sections were taken out of the *National Geographic* magazines; such as descriptive accounts of industries, or of peoples of other countries wherever it was felt that the reading matter added a great deal to the use of the picture.

Much of the information given in pamphlets and magazines received was not available in books; it was preserved in order that it might be circulated. The Central Committee took over the task of binding these materials, making covers for them, and cataloging them.

Treasure Chests. Another unique phase of the visual aids program was the development of treasure chests. For experimental purposes two treasure chests were outfitted, one with Chinese regalia and the other with Mexican things.

During the year, these chests were each used by three different classes. The understanding was that each class using one of these chests would contribute something to it. For example, one group using the Mexican Chest, made an authentic *carretta* to replace the commercially-made one with smooth round wheels that had been included in the chest when it came to them. Another group indexed the materials that were already in the chest and pasted this index inside of the lid. A third group, in still another school, painted an Aztec design on the chest.

From this stimulation, several teachers developed treasure chests in their own classrooms. Either the teacher or the children built the chest and then filled it with materials that were the outgrowths of their curriculum unit.

Circulation of Materials. In order to circulate materials as they were developed it was necessary at first to depend upon teachers who volunteered to take charge of the issuance of the posters and pictures on Saturday mornings. However, it is a part of this county-wide program to have a teacher on full-time duty. All materials are housed in a building which was donated for this purpose, with the under-

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 16

standing that various county departments would cooperate, and this stipulation strengthened the program initiated by the educators. The building is located in a county park next door to the school in which the workshop used by the teacher groups is situated. It is an old home containing many rooms. Since all of the materials were classified according to the nine items in the scope of the curriculum for Santa Barbara County, it was decided to devote a room to the materials relating to each item. In room one, which houses all of the materials having to do with Developing and Conserving Human Resources, there is a large rack of posters, one large box of photographic materials, another large box of flat magazine pictures, a chest of regalia. Slides, stereographs, exhibits and other aids will be added to these materials as the work progresses.

Teacher Excursions. After all of this machinery had been set up, it became evident that there was one very significant phase of the program that had been overlooked. In too many instances it was evident that neither the teacher nor the child had any basic background which would enable them to make an intelligent interpretation of a particular picture. A lack of this understanding seemed to be especially true of processes of industries.

This weakness in the plan led to a realization that excursions might be invaluable in enriching the background of teachers. During the past year teacher excursions have proved to be one of the most valuable visual aids in the total program. Fifteen excursions were taken during 1936-37 and might be classified under cultural, industrial, and historical offerings. Low-priced tickets were secured for some of the musical offerings that came to Santa Barbara. Groups of teachers under qualified guides went through a walnut packing shed, a sugar beet factory, an oil field, a soil conservation camp, and a boat was chartered and took seventy teachers to the Santa Barbara Islands.

The major responsibility in planning these trips was allocated in the office of the county superintendent of schools. Arrangements were made well in advance of a teacher excursion to insure a worthwhile trip. Those in charge of industrial plants were contacted, the purpose of the trip explained and a trip over the plant made by the person in charge of the excursion. Arrangements were made well in advance for a guide to take the teachers through the selected plant.

At the beginning of the school year, teachers were sent a list of the excursions that had been planned, and they indicated those in which they wished to participate. Previous to an excursion a bulletin was sent to each teacher who planned to join a particular group. These bulletins covered some of the main things to be observed, and, where

possible, a brief bibliography was suggested. During the luncheon or dinner hour, or after the excursion, the observations were discussed with relation to various curriculum units. A follow-up bulletin summarized the process or covered the main points in the excursion which were valuable to the teacher group. An abundance of accurate material is available concerning Santa Barbara industries and historical places, and the bulletins sent to the teachers were checked by an authority in the particular area visited. These bulletins have served as additional source material for teachers.

Forty excursions are planned for 1937-38. Trips have already been taken to the coast guard station, a government lighthouse, the United States radio direction finder station, a new commercial radio broadcasting station, a newspaper plant, and a chemically grown vegetable garden.

Photographs are taken during all excursions. Some of these go into the central file, and others are used for purposes of public relations. Teachers have found these pictures valuable to use in Parent Teacher Association meetings.

Motion Pictures. The work in the field of motion pictures has been, not so much to gather in materials as to study this whole problem. Those teachers who indicated that they were particularly concerned with the effect of motion pictures on children, did some concentrated study. Among other things, a conference is arranged with members of the local Better Films Committee in an effort to learn why inappropriate pictures are featured on special days for children.

Out of the investigations made the conclusion was reached that it is the responsibility of the school and the home to help the individual develop a standard of values which will enable him to make a wiser choice of the pictures he sees. It seemed utterly impossible to suppose that school people could reproduce movies in such a manner that the child will be satisfied to stay away from commercial theaters. But, children need to be trained to note and appreciate the educative values available in pictures along the lines of geography, civics, ethics, drama, photography, if motion pictures are to serve a purpose beyond amusement.

However, those in charge of the program of visual and auditory aims were concerned about helping those who already owned motion picture machines to get maximum use from them. Several persons who know a great deal about operating machines and obtaining films, were called in to meet with the teacher groups. Bulletin sources where films may be obtained were listed, and where possible, titles of the films which can be obtained from each source were put into the hands of teachers.

There are distinct advantages in motion pictures, in that they do show a complete process, and some districts were able to purchase machines. Portable motion picture machines cost only one-third as much as the larger ones and prove more satisfactory. Since these portable machines may be used in classrooms, a second or third showing of a reel is possible, the group viewing the film may be small and can participate more easily in a discussion. A large machine must be used in a fireproof room which is usually connected with the auditorium, and this takes the teacher away from her group if she is responsible for operating the machine.

Schools have not been urged to purchase reels of motion pictures because they become obsolete, and for this same reason, films have not been purchased as a part of the material to be issued from the county Visual Education Center.

Aside from the cost involved, another disadvantage has been found in the use of motion pictures. It is not possible to stop a film long enough to permit a careful study of any section. Films frequently arrive so long after the time the children have requested it that they have completely forgotten why it was ordered. It has seemed more profitable to use posters, flat pictures, or other aids rather than moving pictures in giving the children the concept about which they were concerned.

Lantern Slides and Stereographs. Several individual schools have purchased lanterns and the Keystone slides to use in them. Most of the Keystone materials have been classified, that is the Primary, 300 and 66 Sets,—according to the items of the scope, and more materials are being used as a result of this classification.

Another very significant use of these machines has been discovered. Teachers have made slides of children's cooperative stories and these have created a feeling of pride and added interest in reading on the part of the children. These slides can, of course, be illustrated. They are simple to make, and the equipment is not costly.

In comparison with stereographs, slides have a distinctive point in their favor. A slide makes possible a group situation—a sharing, while the stereograph is an individual study—perhaps shared later.

Since stereographs are less expensive than the lanterns, the county purchased a number of sets of stereographs, and also several stereoscopes. The stereographs are of the three-dimension type which give depth to the picture. It was found that this material met the needs of those schools not equipped with electricity, and every county situation has many of these. The stereographs have been classified according to the items of the scope and listed under instructional materials.

Exhibits. The letters which were sent out requesting free and nominal cost materials brought returns in the form of various exhibits. This material is also issued from the Visual Education Center. These exhibits consist of such things as peanut butter, coffee, cotton, and oil.

Photography. Teachers have requested a different kind of assistance in expanding their personal collections since the opening of the school year 1937-38. They wanted to learn the art of photography. A series of work meetings for the purpose of giving instruction in photography were planned to be held in four sections of the county.

Teachers expressed a desire to obtain pictures of all aspects of their own communities, and a photographic record of things seen during vacations. Many of these pictures would be of value only in a specific situation, and in the past the expense of having such pictures developed has prevented teachers from doing much along these lines. In these work meetings teachers learned how to take pictures, how to enlarge them, and how to develop them, by actually having an opportunity to do this under expert direction.

AUDITORY AIDS

The two chief auditory aids to which Santa Barbara County has given attention are the radio and the phonograph.

Radio. The problem in relation to the radio is how schools can make more intelligent use of it.

In the study and analysis of the school's use of the radio carried on, it was found, in general, that one difficulty concerned music appreciation. The teacher had placed "classics" on a pedestal. They failed to remember that the great masters wrote principally dance music, and that the whole basis of classical symphony is dance music.

It was also found that teachers often aroused children's antagonism when they turn on the Standard School Broadcast by saying "Now we are going to hear some *good* music, so sit still and listen." In reality, a little coordinated movement is good, and if children are given the opportunity they soon see which pieces have wearing qualities.

The group studying the problem of the radio concluded that the instrument should not be on when children are doing something else. The greatest danger in the use of the radio seemed to be overuse; it is apt to become a soothing syrup. Therefore, the first task was to teach awareness, and then discrimination.

The programs used most frequently in the schools of the county are the Standard School broadcasts and the Columbia School of the Air.

This year, the Western Educational Forum is furnishing excellent material for the county public relations programs. These programs are broadcast through the facilities of the National Broadcasting Company, every Tuesday from four to four-thirty. Faculty groups invite parents to listen to them, and then everyone present participates in a discussion to clarify points covered in the broadcast.

Phonograph. The phonograph as a teaching aid has been used for a long time. Folk dances and singing games have always added dynamics to the program. Records have been issued from the library for many years. Special corrugated boxes are provided for shipping, and every school in the county has a phonograph. To make the records available doubly useful they were classified like the other materials according to the items of the scope.

SUMMARY

To summarize, instructional materials have been classified according to the items of the scope of the county curriculum. This classification includes all of the books available to the schools. In addition, environmental materials such as canning factories, hospitals, water systems, government lighthouses have been classified. Under another heading, people and institutions have been classified. In short everything in the environment that might be useful has been included in this classification. All of this has made teachers much more aware of the educational possibilities all about them.

The approach that has been made to the whole problem of developing visual and auditory aids has been a satisfactory one in spite of the time spent in determining the best scheme for rendering effective help to teachers. Teachers know what materials have been developed to meet their needs because they have had a part in this development. They have handled some of the beautiful posters and photographs, are enthusiastic about them, and extremely anxious to make the best possible use of them. It would have been much less strenuous, for everyone concerned, if a few persons had prepared these materials; but dynamic interest in the use of these materials would have been lost had such a procedure been followed. It is evident that teachers and staff alike are growing in an understanding and an appreciation of visual and auditory materials at the same time that they are being developed.

THE CURRICULUM PROGRAM OF THE SAN DIEGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS

WILL C. CRAWFORD, *Superintendent of Schools, San Diego*

BASIC PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

The first essential of a modern curriculum program is that it reflect the educational philosophy of the school system. In San Diego education is thought of as planned and guided orientation to the problems of practical life as found in a particular physical and social environment. Life is a process of continuous adjustment. An individual must constantly meet and react to the forces and influences involved in a succession of situations throughout his whole life.

Learning is the successive modification of behavior as the result of accumulated experiences. Education may guide an individual to improve his reactions and behavior within the limits of his ability, and help in his adjustment to the total environment. Education is, therefore, a continuous process from birth to death.

The school is a very important part of this life experience on the part of an individual. It will be seen that the school is an actual part of real life, and that its experiences are vital to the normal development of the individual. Because of its favorable environment and opportunity for a consecutive long-term program of activities, the school offers greater possibilities of planned guidance than any other social institution, with the possible exception of the home.

PRINCIPLES OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

In keeping with the above statement of educational philosophy, the San Diego curriculum program has been organized in accordance with the principles discussed in the following paragraphs.

1. The curriculum includes all child interests and activities, since education is concerned with the whole life process. This means that the curriculum encompasses not only the formal classroom program, but that it is interested in so-called extra curricular activities of whatever nature. Play, work, study, conflict, health, emotions, and interests all come within the scope of the curriculum program. Hence San Diego has studied and revised its report cards and records of pupil progress, has modified its entrance and promotion practices, has expanded its supplementary services in opportunity rooms, health service, and classes for physically and mentally retarded.

2. Curriculum planning is a continuous program since it is a part of life. Such planning is never completed in any static sense, but

is always subject to critical analysis and experimentation in light of changed situations or improved knowledge. The San Diego program is therefore one of curriculum revision and assumes an important permanent place in educational planning.

3. The curriculum program is democratically developed. It is readily responsive to classroom suggestions on the part of both teachers and children. It provides a convenient channel for the interchange of ideas and experimentation—between classroom, school, and grade levels. The present San Diego program followed an intensive development of courses of study about ten years ago. Since that time many members of the professional staff have participated in the process of program revision, and development of trial material.

For example, the present elementary social study program started from the recommendations of a committee which produced the 1928 course of study. A special committee of 25 teachers studied the problem for two years, surveyed current practice in San Diego and elsewhere, made specific suggestions, and laid a groundwork of philosophical and educational principles. Wide use was made of individual experiments carried on in many classrooms over a period of years. Experimental units were developed from this practice. Finally, central direction was undertaken to extend to the whole system the work and influence of the various committees. Every teacher and principal participated in the undertaking.

4. The curriculum program has unity and cohesion. In San Diego, this principle is developed through the interlocking membership on committees of various subjects and grade levels. In addition a central curriculum council was set up last year to further unify the work of individual committees, to serve as a central agency to act upon all curriculum recommendations, and to develop a statement of common objectives.

5. Curriculum publications are not considered as detailed lists of authoritative directions against which teachers check their daily routine, but rather as a general guide and inspiration to help teachers build their own programs of activities in keeping with individual needs and opportunities.

For this reason it was essential that the Curriculum Council first develop for its guidance a progressive set of principles or objectives. This was followed by practical suggestions with illustrative materials, including units and related activities which were adapted to fit individual school situations. Among the most helpful aids were selected bibliographies to assist teachers in finding supplemental information for their ready use.

6. The curriculum program serves as a vital means of in-service training for professional growth. This is more essential than the production of courses of study. The San Diego program has placed its maximum emphasis upon group discussion, demonstration, and observation, encouragement of an experimental child-centered technique, and newer organization of instruction. It has placed a minor emphasis upon written reports on the outcomes of the program.

The study program conducted by principals has paralleled and, in many cases, joined with the study carried on by teacher committees. The discussions and directed research have developed better and more helpful professional improvement than the average university course because actual needs and interests of the teaching personnel have been met.

7. The curriculum program serves as an important articulating factor in the whole instructional setup. The supervisors, principals, and teachers are all working together on a common program in which each must become somewhat familiar with the problems of others. The directors of service are included in the program so that they may continuously keep in mind the broad educational objectives of the whole program.

Articulation also takes place between the various school levels through a better recognition of problems and accomplishments of the different grades and subjects. It is important in the life of the individual to ensure a common philosophy throughout his whole school experience. It also is essential that he enjoy a wide range of activities without either too much overlapping of some experience-areas or the absence of others.

8. An active program of public relations serves to develop a better understanding of what the modern curriculum actually encompasses and to create a readiness for an acceptance of necessary changes from time to time. This has been done in San Diego by such activities as the following:

- a. Inclusion of parents on committees studying needed changes such as report cards
- b. Talks with parent-teacher groups and other civic organizations
- c. Panel discussion technique within teacher groups themselves
- d. Newspaper reports of typical classroom activities illustrative of newer methods
- e. Development of child-study groups
- f. Provision for observation and discussion by parents
- g. Observance of special occasions such as American Education Week, and Public Schools Week

9. The creation of suitable supplementary materials for children's use to enhance the curriculum program when such material is not available through regular commercial sources.

Books prepared for sale over wide areas of the country cannot capitalize upon the leads into life problems and activities which exist in every community and which should be utilized because they are near to the life contacts and the experience-area of the pupil.

The local school system therefore must take the responsibility, and include as a basic part of its curriculum program the development of materials which will make effective teaching and learning feasible and possible. San Diego has made a beginning in this field through its Works Progress Administration curriculum project.

The primary purpose of this project has been to enrich the curricular materials of the public schools through making available local industrial, historical, and cultural backgrounds for use in the schools. These are developed in various forms such as books, illustrations, models, charts, and mural paintings in the schools.

ORGANIZATION OF SAN DIEGO CURRICULUM PROGRAM

In keeping with the principles listed above, San Diego has an active curriculum program. From a primary interest in the organization and presentation of subject material, the emphasis shifted to the development of guiding principles of curriculum study and the possibility of professional improvement through the cooperative study and development of a scope and sequence program based on the actual life experience of children going through the elementary and high school years.

Co-ordinated and unified by the Central Curriculum Council and by interlocking membership on various grade and subject levels, the San Diego Schools have a schedule of curriculum committees that includes a large proportion of the professional staff in various phases of work and study.

The Central Curriculum Council includes the following activities in its plans for the present year.

1. Developing a statement of common objectives and desirable outcomes to provide material for staff and department meeting discussions, and to increase understanding on the parts of all staff members of the curriculum development program.
2. Acting as a central agency to analyze, criticize, approve or disapprove all suggestions made by various groups. This involves a combination of supervisory and administrative responsibilities.

3. Evaluating critically all experimental work being carried on in the schools.
4. Inviting members of the staff to submit comments or criticisms of the curriculum program, such comments or suggestions to be considered and analyzed by the Committee.
5. Visiting the "curriculum in action," and arrange for principals and teachers in each division to visit work being carried on in other divisions.
6. Evaluating work being done on the supplementary curriculum projects.
7. Developing a statement of scope and sequence for the instructional program from the kindergarten through grade 12, including a statement of general aims for each maturity level, as a framework to insure continuity of child experience in our schools.

The elementary program is under the general supervision of the Director of Elementary Education. A steering committee, which includes all supervisors, directors of service divisions, and six elementary principals, directs the general curriculum program. A special committee is set up for each of the six grades, kindergarten, and ungraded rooms, under the leadership of a member of the steering committee.

The program of this curriculum organization is concerned with the scope and sequence of the major centers of interest during the first six years of school experience. A tentative statement is now being carefully analyzed. All material developed by the committee is planned cooperatively and tried out experimentally. It is then distributed in preliminary form for criticism and re-evaluation before regular classroom use.

Secondary curricular activities are carried on through five general co-ordinated groups under the leadership of the Director of Secondary Education. The General Secondary Curriculum Council is a continuing, ex-officio body, made up of the members of the secondary principals' group and acts as a clearinghouse for all curricular activities. Individual principals provide direct contact with activities of specific fields through the departmental curriculum councils of which they or their vice-principals are ex-officio chairmen and liaison agents. Teacher chairmen from the department councils are selected to carry on the activities of the general council.

In addition to the general council, there is a departmental curriculum council with representatives for each subject from all secondary schools. This council considers all routine problems affecting the various departments, and also makes recommendations for changes in

texts. Individual schools are encouraged to carry on professional investigation and experimental activities within their own staff organization, and much effective work is done through this means.

Related groups such as the Deans' Council, the Co-ordination and Guidance Council, Pupil Placement Council, the Librarians' Council, the Health Council, and the Child Guidance Bureau groups are concerned with, and work specifically on problems and procedures that develop from the instructional program in their particular field of endeavor.

A special Trends and Aims Committee, involving a large percentage of the teaching staff, was organized two years ago in fourteen major fields of the secondary schools. Recent trends have been studied and recommendations made as to possible changes and further studies needed.

THE PROGRAM FOR THE PREVENTION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND ITS RELATION TO EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

EDITH E. PENCE, *Director of Curriculum, San Francisco*

Many organizations, both lay and professional, are giving attention at this time to the program for the prevention of juvenile delinquency instituted by one of our large teacher associations. It is timely, therefore, to consider the question as to whether this movement is a legitimate part of our educational program or whether it is an "extra-curricular activity" for those of the teaching profession who are participating in the cooperative effort to reduce and, where possible, to prevent juvenile delinquency.

A variety of statements as to educational objectives is found in present-day writings and discussions, and varying views are expressed in the philosophies of different educators. There does seem to be agreement, however, on the point that education is concerned with the development of a wholesome personality in each child and with the development of those traits of character and habits and attitudes that will enable each person to live worthily as an individual and as a member of society.

The term curriculum is variously defined by different educators. Yet, whether it is conceived as consisting of all those school and environmental experiences that contribute to the development of the child or, in a narrower sense, as referring to the activities and the learning experiences of the classroom, the proposition is now accepted that the curriculum is concerned with the development of the child as a total human being and that the desired outcome is the possession by each individual of that combination and adjustment of qualities that will make for a wholesome, successful life.

Can an enterprise that is chiefly concerned with the development of well-adjusted members of society be indifferent to delinquency on the part of those whose lives it is seeking to adjust, and to the causes of such delinquency? Delinquency is again an elastic term and may be applied to many types of antisocial conduct, ranging all the way from minor offenses against social standards to actual crime. Under any circumstances it is indicative of a lack of either internal adjustment or external adjustment or both; and, whether the delinquency be looked upon as the symptom or as the disease, it indicates a state of maladjustment and should constitute a challenge to those who are

concerned in any way with the achievement of our educational objectives.

To study the circumstances surrounding the delinquency of young people and to help to remove, if possible, the causes of the maladjustment, is surely a part of the educational program. The public schools are not achieving their purpose in the case of any individual child who is delinquent unless such a policy is pursued. A still greater achievement, however, is, through a knowledge of the various causes of delinquency, to anticipate the harmful effects of certain conditions and activities and to participate in a program to remove or to counteract the harmful influences before they have disturbed the lives of young people.

CAUSES OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

A study of the causes of juvenile delinquency shows that most of these causes fall under one of the following headings: (1) unfavorable home conditions, (2) inadequate provision in the schools to meet certain needs, (3) harmful types of entertainment and diversion, (4) unfavorable health conditions, (5) unfavorable economic conditions, (6) harmful influences of some juvenile associates, (7) lack of certain wholesome influences and presence of certain harmful influences from the adult world. It will be noted that most of the causes of delinquency do not originate in the child himself, but relate to external conditions. This fact lends encouragement in any program for the prevention of delinquency, since the factors of disturbance involved can, for the most part, be reached and, the difficulties can, with due cooperative effort, be surmounted.

In citing unfavorable home conditions as a cause of delinquency there should be included (1) broken homes, (2) demoralized homes, (3) undesirable physical surroundings, (4) unfavorable family relationships, and (5) undesirable civic and social attitudes on the part of some parents. Schools often evidence a lack of (1) flexibility in the curriculum to meet individual needs, (2) adequate guidance activities, (3) effective programs for character development, and (4) understanding of the best procedures for handling cases of maladjustment. Harmful types of diversion include those motion pictures, plays, and radio programs that are unsuitable for young people, harmful reading matter, undesirable uses of an automobile by older children, and indulgence in liquor and in types of entertainment that lead to the frequenting of undesirable places.

There are certain factors that sometimes lead to delinquency that are found in the condition of the child himself, though these

factors are not attributable to any fault of the child. These are unfavorable conditions of physical, mental, or emotional health.

Unfavorable economic conditions contribute sometimes to the delinquency of the small child because of the unfortunate effects they have on his home life and on his attitude in his relations with other people. The most direct connection between economic difficulties and delinquency is to be found in the outlook and activities of the older youth in whom the natural urge is to obtain work and to become self supporting, but whose energies and desires find some undesirable line of action when there is no prospect of a job.

The harmful influence that some young people exercise over others is well known as a cause of delinquency. Often the individual child concerned would maintain his balance if alone or with a different set of associates. It is well recognized, too, that the adult world not only sets many unworthy examples for the young people who are observing its attitudes and activities, but that it even goes so far as to contribute often, for its own pleasure or profit, to the delinquency of youth.

It would be helpful to analyze still further these causes of juvenile delinquency, to show how many different conditions and influences are included in each of the fields indicated above. However, the factors that have been presented are probably sufficient for the purpose of determining the relation between the educational program and the cooperative effort to reduce to a minimum the causes of juvenile delinquency.

THE PARTICIPATION OF THE SCHOOL IN A PROGRAM OF PREVENTION

The school can participate in this effort through the curriculum itself, through an extension of its activity beyond the immediate school environment, and through cooperation with other agencies that are devoted to child welfare. Included in the curricular phases of the school program are activities that can be made to counteract some of the causes of delinquency in each of the groups of causes enumerated.

Adjustment of the Curriculum. Some of the causes listed are the direct responsibility of the school. Greater flexibility in the curriculum is a necessity if the problem of the delinquent is to be met. Since there is a wide diversity of capacities, abilities, needs, and interests represented among the pupils of the public schools, there must be flexibility and adjustability in the materials, procedures, and policies provided at all levels in the curriculum. This does not mean that the learning activities provided for should be so diluted as to call

forth little effort on the part of the children. It does mean that in all phases of school activity there must be achievable worth-while goals for each level of ability represented in the group. Then there must be adequate provision for guidance so that pupil effort will be directed along desirable lines and so that each pupil, making his maximum effort, may achieve his various goals. A feeling of inadequacy is often the cause of antisocial conduct, whereas the satisfaction that is felt in the ability to achieve one's goal, and in the actual achievement of it is one of the most effective factors in maintaining high individual morale.

Development of Character. The importance of character development as a part of the school program cannot be stressed too much. The development of strong and worthy character traits in each child should be given definite emphasis and attention and should not be made an incidental matter. This is not the function of any one class alone nor of any one set of activities. This is readily seen when character is defined as that combination of qualities that enables one to set up definite, worth-while goals of conduct and achievement and to exercise that self-control and self-direction and persistence that enable him to reach his goals in spite of obstacles and without sacrificing others to achieve his ends but contributing to the welfare of others through his achievements. The traits and qualities involved in this conception of character can be developed only through consistent practice of them in all of one's daily activities.

Necessarily in as large a group of young people as attend the public schools there are cases of maladjustment to be handled. There is no one formula for dealing with all such cases, but the teacher, counselor, or administrator who has this problem to meet must inform himself fully as to the circumstances surrounding each case and act as wisely and constructively as possible in the light of the information he assembles. To accomplish this the teacher or school official needs not only the usual training, experience, and sympathetic understanding of the successful teacher, but also some special knowledge of effective guidance procedures and of the relation between sociological influences and pupil conduct. To enable teachers to meet this need a comprehensive guidance course and a functional course in sociology including some case work, should be made a part of the teacher-training program. With such a procedure in meeting cases of maladjustment many a case of delinquency can be prevented.

In the effort to combat the harmful effects of unfavorable home conditions, whether due to economic difficulties or to other causes, the school must rely largely on other social agencies of the community that are established for purposes of juvenile protection and

family welfare. The school can play an important part in meeting such problems, however, by helping to discover those cases of maladjustment and of threatened delinquency that are traceable to unsatisfactory home conditions and by bringing these cases to the attention of the proper agencies. The school can help, too, to adjust the lives of such underprivileged children, and to restore and maintain for them a balanced outlook by filling their hours in school with activities that are satisfying and encouraging and that permit of wholesome cooperation with other persons. Constructive work for the future can be done by developing in the children, through their social studies, an understanding and an appreciation of happy, cooperative family relationships. It is found, too, that the development of desirable social attitudes in the school often carries over into the home.

Contributions to Leisure Interests. The school can make definite and effective contributions to the leisure interests of the children, thus making possible the substitution of wholesome pursuits for harmful types of diversion. Numerous activities growing out of the curricular activities of the school carry over into the hours that follow the close of the school day. These include games and sports that have their beginning in the health and play activities of the school group. An interest in reading that is wholesome and at the same time entertaining can be aroused by an introduction to suitable materials in the school, such as will make them attractive to the children and will even stimulate a curiosity and a desire to turn to them during leisure hours. A similar genuine interest can be developed in suitable motion pictures and radio programs. An interest in music furnishes diversion for some young people while the hand crafts offer diversion for others. School activity in the fields of science, mechanical arts, and household arts can supply a stimulus for leisure pursuits for many other children. The encouragement of wholesome hobbies is often the best means for eliminating the desire to engage in harmful activities. Much can be done too, through the cooperation of the school, the home, and the recreation agencies of the community to encourage healthful association of young people with desirable companions and the forming of friendships that will be mutually helpful.

Provision for a Health Program. The health program of the school can contribute to the physical and mental adjustment of the child if it includes not only health education for the development of sound physical and mental health habits, but also provision for physical examination and the follow-up of the examination with suitable physical exercises and special treatment if this is necessary. The school must usually rely on the official health agency of the community for assistance in this latter phase of the program.

Assistance in Vocational Guidance. To assist in meeting the economic needs of the older youths the school can contribute effective vocational guidance and vocational training to enable the boy or girl to plan wisely and make preparation for a suitable occupation. The prospect of a job and the realization on the part of the individual that he can actually prepare himself for remunerative work will often cause him to turn his energies away from undesirable pursuits to honest activity. The situation is even more satisfactory if the school can add to this guidance and training the placement of its pupils in positions and further guidance that will help them to make adjustments after they have entered the vocational world.

Through all of its activities, curricular and otherwise, the school must seek to develop in young people that social understanding and appreciation of desirable social and civic standards that will enable them to evaluate the attitudes and activities of the adults whom they observe and to discriminate between those that are desirable and those that are not acceptable. Only by this means can they set up and maintain suitable standards for their own conduct and avoid being misled by the antisocial conduct of others.

A more detailed analysis of the contributions that the school can make to bring about the adjustment of young people would present a much longer list of effective activities than can be set forth in the limited space allowed here. However, even from this brief discussion it is evident that a constructive program for the prevention of juvenile delinquency involves most of the significant activities that must be included in the school program if the public schools are to achieve their educational objectives.

A COUNTY-WIDE PROGRAM OF MENTAL HYGIENE

GEORGE HUNTER, *Supervisor of Child Welfare, Guidance, and Attendance, Ventura County*

Ventura County is in the process of expanding and unifying its county-wide system of guidance, the facilities of which are available to all teachers and pupils whether in the one-teacher rural school, the city elementary or secondary school, or in the junior college. The undertaking is a big one, embracing every phase of the whole question of guidance, and, quite obviously, progress in all phases of the program has not been possible at a uniform rate of speed.

The first step was to centralize responsibility for the initiation of such a program. This was done when the Superintendent of Schools of Ventura County appointed a member of his staff as supervisor of guidance with following duties:

1. Child accounting, including transfers, personnel records, and other records
2. Supervision of child welfare problems both as an actual aid to the settlement of cases and also as an agent to direct cases to individuals and organizations for assistance.
3. Formulation and evaluation of guidance plans in cooperation with the schools of the county
4. Supervision of testing and adjustment of individual problem cases

These duties were purposefully made flexible to permit experimentation and change as necessary. At once the many phases of guidance were brought into prominence and attacks upon these various sectors were commenced simultaneously.

Of the many phases to which approach was made, this article deals primarily with the problem of setting up a broad program of mental hygiene. The program is intended to assist both teachers and pupils in the prevention and adjustment of behavior and personality problems.

Most teachers are aware of the fact that "the whole child comes to school." They realize that the Intelligence Quotient is not the only criterion upon which to judge a child, and that performance may be influenced by a host of factors. They know something of the hampering of efficiency by those things designated vaguely under the collective term of environment, but teachers are conscious of their need for assistance in recognizing and diagnosing early symptoms so that severe

maladjustments may be prevented, and in remedying the causes of abnormal behavior.

In order to meet these needs of the teachers in Ventura County a mental hygiene program was initiated that included the study of preventive and corrective techniques. The broad purposes were:

1. To supply the classroom teacher with knowledge of the best principles and practices in mental hygiene now accepted by present day psychology. Application of this knowledge should make the classroom a better environment in which the budding personality of the child may be nurtured, and should thus prevent a portion of the problems of behavior in their incipiency.
2. To provide suitable machinery for diagnosis and treatment of behavior problems and personality conflicts of a more serious nature. Obviously it is not only impractical, but also virtually impossible from an administrative point of view to furnish this sort of service for individual schools unless some central agency unifies the efforts of all the schools desiring such aid.

In carrying out these purposes it was essential to determine the resources, both of a preventive and a corrective nature available to the schools of the county. The cooperation of the county library was assured, thus enabling each individual concerned with the work to secure adequate reference materials. The information gained from reading by teachers from widely scattered areas gave extra impetus to the undertaking by arousing greater interest in the whole program. The Bureau of Juvenile Research, California State Department of Social Welfare rendered valuable service by counsel and act. Dr. Norman E. Fenton, the director, personally gave time, offered suggestions, and assisted with the program wherever needed. A psychologist from the Bureau spent some time in the county, giving demonstrations of clinical approach and procedure. This service has been followed up at intervals, increasing the value of the original aid.

Dr. Thomas Haggerty, Superintendent of the Camarillo State Hospital, showed great interest in the plans from the start, and offered his assistance. This took the form of talks and institute sessions on the subject of mental hygiene, and in addition, the supplying of professional service by a member of the hospital staff, a psychiatrist, who gave time to the study of problems scheduled for the clinic. The heads of the welfare, probation, and health departments of the county, aided by furnishing pertinent data, and professional assistance in their respective fields. The California State Department of Social Welfare, through its Division of Child Welfare services, gave help and suggestions.

It was necessary to begin on a small scale, particularly with the corrective phase of the program. The service was announced in bulletins of the county superintendent of schools. Those schools sending in the first requests for aid were used as starting points for the program. Several types were included in this group of schools where intensive work was to be carried on, so that a fairly good cross section of the county schools was obtained. The Educational Council, a steering committee of teachers and administrators representing all levels of education in the county, appointed a committee to study mental hygiene and guidance problems, work with, and advise the supervisor of guidance. This committee consisted of both teachers and administrators representing educational levels from kindergarten through junior college. The task of interesting the teachers in the program was undertaken in three ways.

1. Experts in the field of mental hygiene were sponsored as speakers and discussion leaders at institute sessions and teacher's meetings. Local parent-teacher organizations were invited to attend and participate in these discussions. Visits to certain centers where effective preventive and corrective work is being done were arranged by the committee.
2. A bibliography was made available for teachers and parents desiring to read further in the field. By this means a wider spread of reading on the whole subject of child training was effected.
3. The individual members of the committee appointed by the Educational Council held discussions with their respective faculties, and shared with them the ideas which developed from the work of the committee as a whole. In this manner further interest was generated and much light thrown upon the whole problem of prevention of maladjustments, their treatment and correction.

The initiation of guidance conferences and a clinic was begun on a small scale in the schools selected. Cooperation from these "laboratory" schools was absolutely essential. A successful plan cannot be imposed from without, but must spring from the concerted, coordinated effort of all concerned. The traveling clinic of the Bureau of Juvenile Research had done some effective work in the county and the values of having all agencies concerned with the problem work together had been well demonstrated. The pattern of the successful guidance clinic of the Whittier State School was taken as a guide.

Problems of serious nature are referred to the principal or other official responsible for student personnel by anyone connected with

the school—the classroom teacher or parent. Sometimes cases are referred by the juvenile authorities, probation office, health officials, welfare agencies, parents, or even from friends who have observed certain irregularities in a child's behavior. These problems are generally grouped into three classes or any combination of the three:

1. Failure to come up to expected standards of school work
2. Antisocial or abnormal behavior which marks the child as "different"
3. Problems where health appears impaired or hygiene questions are involved

The office of the principal of the school serves as a clearinghouse for these cases referred, with the principal deciding whether or not each case warrants further study. If, in his opinion, the case should be studied more carefully, he notifies the supervisor of guidance who acts as liaison officer between school and the cooperating agencies. A psychological study is made, usually including an interview, the Binet psychological examination, a reading aptitude test, and often a personality inventory or scale. Arrangement is made for physical check-up, including Betts Eye Test and a health report from the school nurse or public health nurse. A social history is obtained on the child by a nurse or social worker especially trained in this technique.

After information has been gathered, a conference is held at the school where the problem originated. The typical conference is attended by the principal, classroom teacher, psychologist or guidance supervisor, and nurse. All pertinent data about the case are placed before the group and discussed: the child's health and social history, his school record, psychological findings, and any anecdotal material dealing with the problem. Behavior is discussed in the light of all new or hitherto unconsidered facts, and conclusions are reached cooperatively as to difficulties. Remedial measures are carefully weighed before any recommendations are made. After these are decided upon by the group, a member, usually the one with most direct contact, is designated to go to the home, explain the remedial measures which may prove helpful, and urge cooperation from the home in carrying them out. In most cases the parents are appreciative of the attempt to adjust the problems of the child, and rapport is easily established. The consent and approval of the home is essential if satisfactory results are to be attained.

Many of the problems of adjustment have been improved by the foregoing technique. When the outlook for improvement appears unfavorable, or when psychological and physiological conditions are present with which the members of the conference group can not

cope, the case was referred to the psychiatric clinic. In such instances all data are turned over to the psychiatrist. Physical and medical check-up was made, and the parents asked to come to the clinic held at the school or other convenient place. In every case the psychiatrist interviews both child and parent. Following the clinic another conference is held and additional remedial measures are recommended. A follow-up program is outlined and a time set for evaluating the outcome of the measures tried. Without careful after-check the whole program, of course, would be mere form. The supervisor of guidance assumes responsibility for the administration and arrangements of both the clinic and the follow-up, setting dates, making appointments, etc.

One of the most satisfying results of the program is that it develops a wholesome *esprit de corps* among the staff of the various schools using the technique. A genuine interest on the part of all of the teachers averting problem behaviors and a deep understanding of children as individuals result. Adequate personnel records indicating school success, test data, information about the home and health must be kept if the plan outlined in this article is attempted. Psychological diagnoses and home contacts are invaluable if proper results are to be expected. The size of the school does not prohibit the work of the plan as it is flexible enough to fit either a large or a small administrative unit. The potentialities of this type of program as a guidance device are limitless. The ultimate outcome should be to make every teacher a counselor and friend, working with the specialist, whenever necessary, to bring about the cooperation of all agencies within the community which have child welfare as their aim. The program in Ventura County is comparatively new, but worthy results are evident already, and the expectations for the future are great.

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EDITORIAL COMMENT AND NEWS NOTES

STATE SUPERVISORS OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION ATTEND OFFICE OF EDUCATION CONFERENCE

Directors of elementary education from twelve state departments of education attended the Office of Education conference, called by John W. Studebaker, Commissioner of Education, in Washington on September 28 and 29. Miss Helen Heffernan, Chief of the Division of Elementary Education, California State Department of Education, was in attendance.

For two days the visiting conferees, representing nearly 150,000 teachers and more than one fourth of the nation's elementary school population of 22,000,000 children, discussed their common problems and revealed what might be done both by state departments of education and the Office of Education to aid in improving elementary education.

Is an elementary school supervisor in a state department of education responsible for guiding learning in elementary schools? How much assistance does the state supervisor get from specialists in health, music, art, research, physical education, parent education, and other fields? These were two major questions considered. The state directors indicated the wide range of their problems—from the organization of a unit of study for children in the primary grades to preparation of records and reports; from articulation of elementary and high school education to curriculum improvement and teacher education.

Out of the Office of Education conference came specific reports based on discussions. These reports attempt to answer three questions important to the improvement of elementary education in the United States.

1. What makes a good elementary school?
2. What is a desirable plan for the organization of a state department of education in relation to elementary education?
3. What types of services can the Office of Education provide for supervisors of elementary education in state departments?

Plans are under way to bring together all state directors of elementary education at another meeting to be held next February in Cleveland, Ohio, at the time of the American Association of School Administrators meeting. Dr. Ernest Harding of New Jersey and Miss Helen Heffernan of California are arranging for this conference.

WHAT THE CALIFORNIA CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS THINKS OF THE SCHOOLS

At the recent conference in Los Angeles of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Mrs. James K. Lytle, President of the California Congress of Parents and Teachers Association, brought a challenging word of greeting to the group assembled. Many requests have come to Mrs. Lytle for her statement and we are happy to be able to include it here that it may have wide dissemination.

We are glad this morning to bring to this annual conference the greetings of the California Congress of Parents and Teachers, a lay body organized for child welfare, interested in all of the experiences of youth in home, school and community.

The education of a child is the adjustment of all the influences in his life—organized and unorganized—which act upon him in any way. It is therefore the responsibility of parents and teachers, working in home, school and community to develop, utilize, counteract, and control these influences, situations and programs in accordance with the established objectives of a democratic education.

You, the educators, represent the organized influences; we, the parents, the unorganized. Working alone we are ineffectual, not able to adjust these influences, but working together we may. We furnish you the material on which you work; we do not interfere with the administration of your schools, with the curriculum, or with the procedure, but we do know what we want of the finished product.

Therefore we ask to sit in with you in your planning. We ask you to help us plan our part of the unorganized portion of a child's education. Together we should utilize, control and counteract the community influences.

What do we want the finished product to be? We want an intelligent and informed individual, one able to think through his problems. One who understands his own emotions and has control of them, who has the use of the fundamental tools of learning, and has a healthy mind in a healthy body.

We want this finished product to be a producer, an intelligent consumer, and yes, even today when we live unto only today, we want him to be an investor. You call it 'economically efficient.' We want him willing and able to play his part in the civic affairs of his nation, state and community. Above all we want him able to not only live with himself, but with the people with whom he comes in contact.

A large order, yes, we acknowledge it is a large order. We also acknowledge we cannot fill it alone, nor can you, but together we may.

This year, the eighteen hundred units throughout the state are taking as the theme of their monthly meetings, "Democracy, a Way of Life."

Trying to arouse the parent to the knowledge that the home must set the stage for what our children are receiving at school, in other words making the home the laboratory for trial of the theories young people receive at school. We also wish to inspire our parents that by living democratically in the home, working for the common good, allowing for freedom of thought and action, and yet respecting the rights and comforts of each other, they are teaching their young people this form of life. We again bring greetings, and ask again that we be taken into your confidence, that we be given a voice in your planning.

CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION OF CHILDREN OF SEASONAL WORKERS

Dr. Walter F. Dexter has called a conference on the education of children of seasonal workers to be held at Fresno State College, December 9 and 10, 1938.

The importance of this problem is evident to the majority of the county and city school administrators in California. Persons from various civic, economic, and welfare organizations, as well as interested school administrators, have been invited to attend and participate in the discussion. Copies of the program are available from Mrs. Lillian B. Hill, Chief, Bureau of Attendance and Migratory Schools, California State Department of Education, Sacramento.

HEALTH BULLETINS FOR ELEMENTARY GRADES

From the office of the County Superintendent of Schools of Merced County there has recently been received two bulletins relating to health education in the elementary schools. "Teaching Health Habits for Grades 1 to 6" is a unit of work related to the establishment of sound health habits in the first six grades of the elementary school. "Community Health Outline" has been worked out to help teachers emphasize the health implications in the social studies units for the seventh and eighth grades. A close correlation between the materials in the state social studies texts and health education has been realized. These bulletins of approximately forty pages each are available upon application to Superintendent C. S. Weaver, Merced.

I PLEDGE ALLEGIANCE

In every schoolroom in the country, groups of children stand erect, eyes fixed on the symbol of the United States, and repeat the pledge of allegiance. As the ceremonial is observed one wonders what concepts are conveyed to the minds of the children, or is this repetition useless verbalism.

A letter from a young teacher engaged in his first year of teaching recently came to the office. He said:

It often occurred to me that most children did not know what they were saying when they saluted the flag. This fall, when I came to my school, which by the way is my first, I asked my children after they had saluted the flag, what it was they had just said. I found that the words and their meanings mystified them.

We studied the salute to the flag, even consulting the dictionary. After that the children wrote in their own words what the pledge meant to them. I am sending you their statements because I think the spirit of them is good although the diction may leave much to be desired.

The limitation of space precludes quoting all of the efforts to restate the pledge of allegiance. The one which seems most appealing read:

I PROMISE TO SUPPORT THE GOVERNMENT OF
THE UNITED STATES FOR WHICH THE FLAG STANDS
BECAUSE OUR UNITED COUNTRY GIVES FREEDOM,
PROTECTION, AND EQUAL RIGHTS TO EVERYONE.

These children who have thought through the meaning of the words they speak every school day are building attitudes of loyalty of enormous significance in a world that seems to have repudiated the democratic ideal.

THE MONO

Each month there comes from the North Fork Union School an unusually creditable news sheet, *The Mono*. The photolith illustrations are attractive and show work of various kinds going on at the school. The news items are gathered by the pupils and the actual work of publishing the news sheet is done in the school shops.

North Fork Union School is attended by Indian children from the mountainous area surrounding the school in Madera County. Mr. J. A. Thomason, Principal, and five teachers make up the teaching staff.

SANTA BARBARA COUNTY PRODUCES NEW TEACHING-LEARNING UNITS

Three excellent units have been received from the office of the county superintendent of schools of Santa Barbara County.

Monograph Number 25 is entitled "Conservation of Our Natural Resources" and was developed by Margaret Neagle, teacher, San Marcos School. The bulletin is 50 mimeographed pages.

Monograph Number 26 is entitled "The Farm" and was developed by Phoebe Ann Laughlin, teacher, grades one and two, Ellwood School. The bulletin is 44 mimeographed pages.

Monograph Number 27, "How Inventions Have Changed Our Way of Living" was developed by H. Irene Sawyer, teacher, grades six and seven, Montecito Union School. The bulletin is 50 mimeographed pages in length.

The units follow the general outline of survey of community possibilities, survey of group needs and interests, preview of unit, inauguration of the unit, relation of the unit to the scope and sequence, the daily program, narrative account of the unit, evaluation of learnings resulting, instructional material.

BUTTE COUNTY CURRICULUM PROJECT

The Butte County curriculum project which has been in progress during the past year and a half under the direction of Dr. Floyd F. Caldwell of Chico State College has recently concluded the first phase of work. Under the title, "Suggestions to Teachers in Guiding the Child's Experiences," a mimeographed bulletin of 203 pages has been produced.

The teachers of Butte County participated actively in the preparation of material. Meetings were held regularly throughout the period of study in which problems of the elementary school curriculum were studied particularly in their application to the schools of the area.

The bulletin is divided into five parts as follows: (1) the principles which underlie modern educational practices and their implications; (2) some ways in which Butte County teachers have introduced democratic procedures into the classroom in meeting the needs of the child and his society; (3) suggestions to teachers for guiding pupils' learnings in large areas of experience; (4) suggested techniques, and procedures for teachers in guiding the child in his mastery of the tools of learning; (5) areas of experience that are essential to the development of the child in our democracy. The course of study is so arranged that it can be supplemented and as teachers grow in this service, they will be able to select and develop better materials and more effective teaching methods.

The professional staff of the county office, Mr. Jay E. Partridge, Miss M. L. Richmond, and Mr. Floyd Tarr, and the County Librarian, Miss Ida Reagan, as well as Dr. Floyd F. Caldwell, merit commendation for the excellent professional leadership which this material reveals.

The extension of professional service from the state college into the immediate area is particularly noteworthy as is the general participation in the enterprise by the teachers, principals, and superintendents.

SUMMER CONFERENCE N. E. A. DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The N. E. A. Department of Elementary School Principals is to hold its third annual Conference on Elementary Education at the University of California, Berkeley, July 10 to 21, 1939.

Arrangements are being completed by Eva Pinkston, National Secretary, and Dean W. W. Kemp, of the School of Education, University of California.

A number of outstanding persons have been invited to participate in this conference and nationally known leaders will be members of the staff.

Elementary school principals in California will want to take advantage of this opportunity afforded them on the Berkeley campus during the 1939 summer session.

More detailed information relative to the program will appear in a later issue of the Journal.

BUILDING AMERICA

Three years ago the Society for Curriculum Study, a professional organization devoted to the improvement of the curriculum in American schools, began the enterprise of preparing and publishing the *Building America* series of study units.

Bound volumes of the publication are available at \$3.20 each for No. 1, 2, and 3, subject to 25 per cent discount to schools. In the school year, October-May, 1938-1939, eight study units will be published. Subscription for single copies is \$2.00 per year; 20 copies or more mailed to one address, each \$1.25. All communications concerning *Building America* should be addressed to E. M. Hale and Company, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

INTEGRATION OF MUSIC WITH AREAS OF EXPERIENCE

An interesting bulletin entitled "Suggested Music Procedures for Integration of Music With Areas of Experience" has just been received from the office of the Superintendent of Schools of Monrovia. Appropriate songs, phonograph records, selections from music appreciation readers, suggested creative activities, and a bibliography have been prepared for a group of ancient civilizations, and for Africa, California, Canada, China, England, France, Hawaii, Plains Indians, Indians of the Southwest, Life in the Middle Ages, Mexico, the Philippine Islands, South America, and Switzerland.

The bulletin is designed to fill the teacher's need for materials to aid in providing a rich music experience for children in relation to the major curriculum units.

NEW COURSE OF STUDY IN READING

From the office of the County Superintendent of Schools of San Mateo County there has been received a new course of study entitled "An Experience Curriculum in English: Part Two, Reading." This 216-page study of reading is the work of teacher committees in San Mateo County, working under the direction of Miss Eleanor Freeman, Director of Curriculum of San Mateo County.

The reading program is carefully organized for each level of development. The suggestions to teachers are specific and give evidence of growing out of actual classroom experience as well as extensive acquaintance with the professional studies in the field of reading.

In addition to the analysis of instructional problems at each level of development, sections have been provided on the use of tests, special reading problems, diagnosis and treatment of reading disabilities, and library and literature.

NATIONAL PARENT EDUCATION BROADCAST

The real "dramas" that education introduce to millions of Americans in their homes, schools, and communities will be broadcast in a new radio series "Wings for the Martins," to be presented from 9:30 to 10:00 every Wednesday during November and December. Prepared and presented by the Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior, the series will be produced with the cooperation of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and the National Broadcasting Company.

Program supervisor for the series, Miss Effie Bathurst, Office of Education specialist in curricular problems, and Miss Tolosa Cook, Des Moines, Iowa, teacher, author, and curriculum specialist, have conducted the preliminary research. Miss Pauline Gibson prepared the 26 half-hour scripts.

The weekly broadcasts for the last week of November and the month of December are announced as follows: Everybody Joins a Club, November 30; Let's Give Them Books, December 7; Keeping the Family Well, December 14; She Hasn't a Thing to Wear, December 21; No Fun at Home?, December 28.

A PICTURE OF RURAL SUPERVISION AS SHOWN BY SUPERVISORY LOGS

DETA P. NEELEY

To discover solutions for the difficulties encountered by teachers requires a clear understanding of the problems involved. In a recent study of rural teachers' problems and supervisors' procedures for dealing with them,¹ the supervisors observed symptoms, diagnosed, applied remedies to control symptoms, and planned corrective treatment to remedy teaching weaknesses.

The purposes of this study were (1) to discover and define the difficulties of rural school teachers needing the most supervisory help, and (2) to ascertain the techniques used by representative rural school supervisors in helping the teachers to remedy these difficulties. In addition, the investigation included an analysis of the reported improvement made by the teachers during the period of supervision. The scope of the study was delimited to teaching and supervision in the primary grades of California rural schools.

It is the purpose in this article to deal with only one means used in gathering the data regarding the second phase of this study, namely, supervisory logs.

LOGS OF SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES

Supervisory logs were kept for the entire school year of 1935-1936, and were recorded with great care and skill. The supervisors were requested to keep a detailed record of the help by dates, types, and nature given to each of five teachers selected for intensive study and supervision. Complete and useable logs were received from twenty-three supervisors regarding the help they had given to ninety-one teachers. The careful recording of this supervisory help proved to be an important aid in the study since it resulted in accumulated data supporting other reports of supervisory assistance given to teachers.

The following log has been selected as an example of the skillful distribution of time and effort of the supervisor in assisting a teacher in dealing with individual differences. Space does not permit the reproduction of the log in its entirety. Where similar supervisory procedures appear more than once only the discussion of the first one is included. However, all contacts are listed regardless of the frequency with which they are mentioned.

¹ Deta P. Neeley. "Rural Teachers' Problems and Supervisors' Procedures for Dealing With Them." Unpublished doctor of education thesis, School of Education, University of California, May, 1936.

A SUPERVISOR'S LOG OF SUPERVISORY ASSISTANCE GIVEN A TEACHER DURING THE
SCHOOL YEAR 1935-1936

August 20, Bulletin I

General policies for school year 1935-1936

August 21, Conference

Time 10:30-12:30

Purpose

1. Discussed new "County Manual of Information."
2. Gave teacher courses of study. Indicated pertinent points that should be read immediately.
3. Referred teacher to Bulletin I.
4. Together, planned tentative program of activities.
5. Discussed units of work which would be best adapted to her group and combination of grades.
6. From results of the *Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale* given May, 1935, checked the reading ability of each child.
7. Introduced teacher to supervisor of attendance and physical education. He explained method of keeping register and gave teacher a bulletin entitled "Bibliography of Folk Dances, Games, and Singing Games for Correlation With Social studies."
8. Introduced teacher to the music supervisor who explained the use of a rote-song list which she had just compiled.

August 21, Conference (continued)

Time 2:00-2:30

Purpose

1. Introduced teacher to librarians who would serve her throughout the year.
2. Aided teacher in selecting readers and social study reference books.
3. Acquainted teacher with visual aid material in the library.
4. Secured from librarian a file in which all science bulletins furnished by the State Department of Education were to be kept.
5. Had librarian explain method of ordering books and other materials by mail.

September 3, School opened

September 10, Classroom observation

Time 9:00-10:00

Grades 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

Relationships

Teacher-child, too domineering

Child-teacher, passive

Purpose

1. In development of primary reading the purpose was indefinite on the part of both pupil and teacher

Routine Mechanics

1. Housekeeping careless
2. Room unattractive
3. Paper on floor
4. Seating arrangement careless, feet dangling

September 10, Analysis of conference

Time 12:15-12:45

Primary Reading

Problem

1. Teacher drilling grade two on list of words selected from story. Words had no meaning for the children since they had no previous acquaintance with the story. Period too long.

Help given

1. Explained how a new lesson should be introduced and developed. Used teacher's copy of county course of study as a basis for explanation. Underlined points for her future reference.
2. Recommended that first-grade stories be cooperative group stories; perhaps based on their activities with the home.

Routine mechanics

Help given

1. Discussed with teacher the importance of good housekeeping. Referred her to pages 28 and 29 in the "County Manual of Information."
2. Suggested that children be moved about until they find seats that are better adjusted to them, then blocks of wood be placed under feet that are still dangling.

September 14, Conference. Prepared teacher for planned demonstration

September 18, Demonstration observation

Place, one-teacher school

Time, 1:15-2:15

Subject, Reading

Purpose

1. To have demonstrated those techniques in the teaching of reading with which eight or ten of the new teachers whom I had observed were having trouble. (Every day during the week preceding the demonstration I had worked with the teacher who was doing the demonstrating.)

Bulletin II

Suggested the points I was particularly eager to have teachers observe during the hour. This was issued after the teachers arrived.

Group Meeting

Time, 2:15-4:00

Purpose

1. To clinch points observed, and to allow for free discussion and asking of questions.
 - a. Presentations by three outstanding teachers
Reading in the Primary Grades
Speed, Comprehension, and Extensive Reading are Emphasized Rather Than Oral Reading. Why?
What Methods are Used?
 - b. Much discussion—types of seatwork evaluated and provision for individual differences covered.

September 28, General meeting

Time, Entire day

Conducted by two university professors of education

Purpose

1. To present a program of reading and discussion for reconstruction of the curriculum. Basic reading for entire year.

- September 30, Bulletin III (general)
- October 7, Bulletin IV (general)
- October 22, Bulletin V (schedule of testing—to which the teacher replied she knew nothing about giving tests.)
- October 30, Bulletin VI (scoring tests)
- November 1, Conference (preparing the teacher for observing the giving of tests by supervisor.)
- November 6, Tested children
- November 6, Playground observation
- Time, 12:00-1:00
- Relationships
- Teacher-child, fussy
 - Child-teacher, tattling
 - Pupil-pupil, quarrelsome
- Talked to children
- Recommendations
1. Suggested that teacher contact the physical education supervisor at once for help in organization of play periods. (She sent a note to him, and the following week he went to the school and worked with the teacher and the children.)
- November 8, Classroom observation
- Conference with teacher
- November 16, General meeting
- December 4, Group meeting
- January 6, Bulletin VII (general)
- January 10, General meeting
- January 14, Classroom observation
- Conference with teacher
- January 19, Conference (at office)
- Gave professional reading
- January 25, Conference (at office)
- January 28, Bulletin VIII (general)
- January 29, Group meeting
- January 31, Jointly planned observation
- Place, One-teacher school
1. Many subnormal and slow children
- Time, Entire day
- Preparation for teacher demonstrating
1. This teacher has taught under my supervision for five years and during that time I have taken several new teachers there to observe. On this occasion I had explained to her just what phases of the work I particularly wanted emphasized for the benefit of the observing teacher. I observed her work and gave suggestions the week preceding this date.
- Purpose, to observe
1. How the entire day's work was adapted to meet the needs of individuals, instruction, instructional material, seatwork, and so on.
 2. Organization and rotation of classes.
 3. Short "snappy" drill periods.
 4. Techniques of teaching spelling.
 5. How left-handed children are helped in writing.
 6. How pupil initiative and responsibility are developed.
 7. Thoroughness and skill with which assignments are made.
 8. Types of worth-while seatwork.

Conference

1. I observed with this teacher all day, and at each intermission we discussed what we had observed during the period. Details were fresh with both of us, and it was easy to clear up any questions she had.
2. During the noon hour the three of us discussed the morning's work. A fine attitude was apparent.
3. The procedure for the afternoon was the same as in the morning, so at the end of the school day only a brief conference was necessary.
4. I had given the teacher the list of eight points to keep in mind during the day, and she took notes on her observations concerning these particular problems.

February 3, Bulletins IX, X, XI, and XII (general)

February 18, Bulletin XIII

Purpose

1. To explain the plans for the observation of an integrated program that had been arranged for teachers of one-room schools at their request.

February 28, Classroom observation

March 3, Observation of an integrated program jointly planned

March 17, Conference (at office)

March 20, Classroom observation

Written notes left with teacher

Led teacher to analyze self

March 24, Public relations program

Time, 1:00-3:30

Grades, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

Purpose

1. To inform the parents in M School what is meant by a unit of work, and social studies program.
 2. To create in parents greater interest in the school.
- 2:10—Children dismissed and parents gathered in a circle for group discussion.

Evaluation of the work of the teacher

1. Very well done. Children were happy in their work and responded enthusiastically because they were interested.

March 26, Bulletin XIV (general)

An examination of the original data shows that this teacher was reported as having made improvement in all items in which she had experienced difficulty. The implications to be drawn from the details in the log support the reports of the supervisor that the intensive and carefully planned supervisory program under which this teacher worked contributed considerably to her improvement. This conclusion holds for other cases of teachers and supervisors.

PROCEDURES USED IN DEALING WITH TEACHERS' PROBLEMS

After analyzing the problems of each selected teacher, the supervisors planned definite remedial and corrective treatment to overcome the difficulties involved. The supervisory procedures used in the solution of teachers' problems were many and varied. However, certain specific procedures were used in a large number of the cases.

Table I presents the data relative to the types and frequency of supervisory procedures used in dealing with teachers' problems. The procedures used by all the supervisors for the greatest number of teachers were (1) observing classroom procedures, (2) conferring with teacher, and (3) aiding teachers in planning. Twenty-two of the twenty-three supervisors helped pupils with their work, talked to pupils in class, distributed new materials, observed jointly planned lesson, and gave teacher professional reading. Fewer supervisors used general meetings for the solution of teachers' problems than any other supervisory means. Supervisors assisted twice as many teachers by means of classroom observation and individual conference as they aided by helping teacher with testing program, leading teacher to define her problems, or discussing her needs with principal. Nineteen supervisors took notes while observing in 97.3 per cent of the rooms they visited. This procedure had the distinction of being used for the highest percentage of the teachers assisted; while the "teacher-defined-her-problems device" was used for the lowest percentage.

An examination of the original data revealed that all ninety-one teachers covered in this study received supervisory assistance on the problems in which they had difficulty.

TABLE I
NUMBER AND PER CENT OF SUPERVISORS USING VARIOUS PROCEDURES IN DEALING
WITH TEACHERS' PROBLEMS DURING SCHOOL YEAR, 1935-1936

Nature of the specific procedure used by supervisors	Supervisors		Teachers supervised		
	Number	Per cent	Total number	Assisted	
				Number	Per cent
Classroom observation.....	23	100	91	83	91.2
Took notes while observing.....	19	82.6	73	71	97.3
Gave copy of notes to teacher.....	17	73.9	68	52	76.5
Helped pupils with their work.....	22	95.6	88	78	88.6
Talked to pupils in class.....	22	95.6	88	74	84.1
Participated in recitation.....	19	82.6	81	75	92.6
Took class and attacked problem.....	20	87	78	61	78.2
Tested pupils.....	18	78.3	68	53	77.9
Examined pupils' work.....	21	91.3	79	66	83.5
Examined teachers' plans.....	19	82.6	77	56	72.7
Aided teacher in planning.....	23	100	91	80	87.9
Distributed new materials.....	22	95.6	84	74	88.1
Conference with teacher.....	23	100	91	83	91.2
Observed jointly planned lesson.....	22	95.6	84	56	66.7
Led teacher to analyze self.....	21	93.3	79	51	64.6
Demonstrated for the teacher.....	20	87	74	60	81.1
Had teacher observe elsewhere.....	18	78.3	68	46	67.6
Helped teacher with testing program.....	18	78.3	68	36	52.9
Bulletins on problems sent teacher.....	19	82.6	81	54	66.7
Teacher defines her problems.....	20	87	78	40	51.3
Provided teacher with bibliography.....	19	82.6	70	49	70
Gave teacher professional reading.....	22	95.6	85	64	75.3
Group meetings held.....	19	82.6	81	64	79
General meetings held.....	16	69.6	70	56	80
Discussed teacher needs with principal.....	17	73.9	67	36	53.7
Total participating in study.....	23	100	91	91	100

¹ Many of these teachers had no principal

VARIATIONS IN TYPES OF SUPERVISORY PROGRAMS

It is difficult to make any quantitative evaluation of the extent to which certain supervisory procedures specifically contributed to the elimination or the reduction of teachers' problems. Two important factors that must be considered in this connection are the skill of the supervisor and the value of supervisory procedures: (1) supervisors differ widely in skill in performing various functions, because of lack of experience, differences in training, differences in ability to work with teachers, differences in educational philosophy, and the like, and (2) there is little evidence available as to the specific and primary value of a supervisory procedure. Complementary purposes of teachers' meetings, conferences, and bulletins have not been determined experimentally. However, observable changes in the teaching situation can be considered as significant evidence of the effectiveness of supervisory procedures.

TABLE II

NUMBER AND KIND OF SUPERVISORY CONTACTS WITH TEACHERS DURING THE SCHOOL YEAR, 1935-1936

Specific supervisory procedure	Number of supervisory contacts reported by supervisors		
	A	B	C
Conference with the teacher in her classroom.....	10	9	8
Classroom observation.....	10	9	4
Group meetings held.....	5	4	9
Aided teacher in planning.....	4	4	1
General meetings held.....	4	2	2
Distributed new materials.....	2	2	1
Gave teacher professional reading.....	34	5	--
Bulletins on problems sent teacher.....	14	5	--
Provided teacher with bibliography.....	9	2	--
Conference with teacher at office.....	6	3	--
Took notes while observing.....	5	2	--
Gave teacher copy of notes.....	5	2	--
Examined pupils' work.....	4	4	--
Led teacher to analyze self.....	2	2	--
Took class and attacked problem.....	2	1	--
Helped teacher with testing program.....	4	--	6
Demonstration observation.....	1	--	4
Tested pupils.....	--	2	5
Preparation for conference with teacher.....	10	--	--
Helped pupils with their work.....	6	--	--
Talked to pupils in class.....	3	--	--
Discussed lesson with pupils.....	3	--	--
Meeting of one-room school teachers.....	3	--	--
Follow-up bulletins.....	3	--	--
Preschool conference with teacher.....	2	--	--
Observation of playground activities.....	1	--	--
Read to pupils.....	1	--	--
Prepared teacher for demonstration.....	1	--	--
Interviewed parents with teacher.....	1	--	--
Dinner conference with teacher.....	1	--	--
Interviewed clerk of board with teacher.....	1	--	--
Coordinating council meeting.....	1	--	--
Prepared teacher to observe elsewhere.....	1	--	--
Teacher observed elsewhere.....	1	--	--
Teacher defines her problems.....	1	--	--
Grouped children.....	--	1	--
Jointly planned program of activities.....	--	1	--
Prepared teacher for conference.....	--	1	--
Observed jointly planned lesson.....	--	--	1

Items from three logs are presented in Table II as examples of the frequency and variety of method used by supervisors in assisting teachers by means of specified supervisory procedures.

The following excerpts from the logs are presented as examples of the variety of method and skill used by supervisors in assisting teachers by means of classroom observations, individual conference with the teacher, and group meetings. All supervisory procedures appear more than once; but the discussion of only one case is included in this article. However, all items are listed regardless of the frequency with which they are mentioned.

EXCERPTS FROM LOGS PRESENTING EXAMPLES OF CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS BY SUPERVISORS

TEACHER A

December 4, School visit

Observed primary reading and middle-grades social studies. Conference with teacher (after school). Suggested rhythmic records—teacher does not play piano. Left copy of my outline on music appreciation with teacher. Gave informal test to Dorothy (second grade) to determine her readiness for next level of reading. Found her still at first-grade level. Made suggestions for individual reading and seatwork. Suggested that pupils working on Christmas toys have bench in cloak room for noisy part of work. Teacher asked for criticism of her plans for physical education. Left with teacher state bulletins and two elementary education journals with marked articles on problems of individual differences.

Other classroom visits, September 13, October 11, November 13, December 11, January 12, February 3, March 5, April 3.

TEACHER B

The first step in studying this school was to meet with the teacher, explain the purpose of the study, discuss her particular problems, and secure her consent to participate.

On the first regular visit I observed the social period at the beginning of the school day and three reading periods. One group of entering pupils appeared extremely immature; another group was already reading chart stories which they had dictated. The second-grade pupils were extremely weak in reading. Some time was spent with one of the boys who was having a difficult time.

The room had an unusually large enrollment for this school and there was considerable confusion. I called attention to this and the teacher quickly made her own diagnosis and suggested the remedy. We discussed the needs of the immature pupils and decided to use tests to determine just what the situation was.

I gave a reading-readiness test and found the pupils the most immature group I had tested; they were inattentive, would not obey the instructions for marking the test, and required an unusual amount of help in the practice test. The teacher gave a primary group intelligence test. When the results of both tests were examined it was evident that, with the possible exception of two pupils, the group was too young mentally to begin first-grade reading at that time. I asked that they be classified as preprimary and that activities be developed to build up a background for reading.

Total number of classroom observations, 9.

TEACHER C

First visit, opening week of school. Found teacher all but wringing her hands. Stayed for remainder of school day conducting all classes for her. Visited her frequently to be sure that she held her ground.

TEACHER D

January 23. Time, 1:50-4:30. Grades 1-8.

Relationships

Teacher-pupil, ineffectual

Pupil-teacher, disrespectful

Pupil-pupil, indifferent

Observation of clean-up period, library work, and social studies.

Routine mechanics, room disgracefully untidy.

Analysis for conference

General problem

1. School board had taken out partition for library corner and installed shelves, but books were just thrown on the table and paper was crumpled on shelves.
2. Bobby had gone on a rampage, strewn the contents of his desk over the floor, and refused to clean things up.
3. Before the children, the teacher started to tell how terrible they were and that she couldn't possibly do anything with them. I stopped her and suggested she dismiss them for recess.
4. Teacher asked me to work with children, stating she had lost interest in the school since the community was so mean.

General help given

1. Refused to take class in spite of the fact that teacher wept and begged. Explained that experience had shown us both that whatever I might do in working with the children would serve only to relieve the immediate situation.
2. Suggested that teacher have children clean up their classroom when they came in, stimulate further discussion of their library project, pointing out that it was essential for her to take the position of leadership if she expected children to have any confidence in her, and also in order to develop self-confidence.
3. Reminded teacher that she had accepted the position knowing much of the community difficulty. Pointed out she owed it to the children, parents, school board, and herself to succeed.
4. When general housecleaning was completed, suggested that she take pupils right into their social studies work.

Social studies problem

1. During the activity period, children were given privileges they were not ready to handle. Freedom became license.
2. Evaluation period well directed, but lacked spontaneity and interest.

Help given

1. Examined childrens' notebooks and other written work. Made suggestions to children and teacher.
2. Recommended again that all activity work be done within the room where the teacher could supervise all.

3. Referred teacher to course of study. Asked her to reread this material carefully. Referred her to *County Manual of Information*.
4. Commended teacher on her effort to recognize individual differences in conducting the social studies. Good reports were given.
5. Together we decided just what privileges might be extended to certain individuals. I made and wrote suggestions concerning each child.
6. Discussed with her the points I particularly wanted her to observe during our observation on March 3.
7. Asked teacher if she was happier now that her sister had come to live with her. She said she was not so lonesome, but just couldn't stand the community.

Total number of classroom observations, 10.

TEACHER E

A supervisor's observation of teaching by a teacher in the classroom I have found to be of little value after practice-teaching days. With teachers in service, demonstration and subsequent individual conference with the teacher get better results with the children. My teachers know that we follow this practice. I explained to them that I was observing their teaching because it was part of the assignment in the study. Other classroom observations, January 7, February 6, and March 31.

EXCERPTS FROM LOGS PRESENTING EXAMPLES OF SUPERVISORS' INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCE WITH TEACHERS

TEACHER F

This teacher has been out of teaching many years. Her preparation was meager and antiquated. She seems to have been a fine formal teacher in her day. She inherited a very retarded situation when she took over the school. A large majority of the children were not overendowed with intellect. Her predecessor had been stern and severe. The little children were terribly intimidated and had done almost nothing during the preceding year.

The teacher had never had primary grades nor an eighth-grade situation in her experience, therefore the whole procedure was discussed during a conference at her school. Programming received the first attention and an endeavor was made to get music and art on the program. The children were starved for activities and experiences. They had never illustrated stories nor done handwork. They were working in books too difficult, writing pages of meaningless words, being good little boys and girls, and never daring to move. The room was bare and disorderly, the teacher concerned only with subject matter and its lack in the middle and older grades. Of course, house-keeping, citizenship, and the like, came in early for their demands.

Our first task was to free the teacher from that fear of being checked in the way of subject matter, then to show her how to follow the county plan and still adjust the work to the ability and needs of the group. We started with social studies in the upper grades and with reading in the lower grades. As soon as we let her see that we knew her problem, freed her to give the work the children needed next regardless of age or grade, she seemed to relax and talked over her worries with us. She feared the activity program and knew nothing of it. We told her to use the methods she knew until she had studied her children's abilities and needs.

Total number of conferences held, 5.

TEACHER G

Suggestions made during conference

1. Select simpler material with more interesting stories
2. Teacher discuss with class the illustrations and the story
3. Bring about discussion of any similar experiences which the children may have had.
4. Bring pictures, flowers, plants.
5. Work out silent reading material for check-up on comprehension of stories
6. Drawing that correlates with reading lesson.
7. Develop vocabulary.
8. Sent some professional books.

Total number of conferences held, 5.

TEACHER D

Help given during conference

1. Wrote out and gave to teacher notes concerning each class taught during the day.
2. Explained of how little worth was the mere acquisition of subject matter when the habits, attitudes, and ideals that develop fine citizens are neglected.
3. Discussed the recreation project. Parents and children were enjoying it. Meetings held on Thursday, Saturday, and Sunday of each week.
4. At her request talked over, then listed all of the things which she would have to improve before I could recommend her for a teaching position anywhere.
5. Told teacher that I had faith in her, and believed that she would again be successful as a classroom teacher under the direction of a strong principal. She hopes to go to college next year, and if so wishes me to plan what she should take and where.
6. Recommend that she send her resignation to the board of trustees soon, even though the school board blamed the parents and not the teacher for the troubles that had arisen. (This teacher had intended to resign and did so at once.)

Total number of conferences held, 10.

TEACHER H

March 24.

After school several of the children who were waiting for the school bus read for me. What an improvement! And how they talked about their activities.

We discussed reading again, and I suggested *Reading Activities in Primary Grades*,¹ which the teacher had already read and used. She is aggressive and a big producer. She takes suggestions, but I know now she would have gone ahead even if I had never visited her nor suggested a thing. I have enjoyed greatly my contacts with her.

Total number of conferences held, 4.

TEACHER I

January 15, 1936

During the conference with the teacher we checked the Diagnostic Record in part and the Analysis of Classroom Procedure together. The teacher was very cooperative and agreed to plan a pupil-initiated activity for at least a month for the entire group in the afternoon. She worried about losing control of the class and wanted to continue

¹ Grace E. Storm and Nila B. Smith, *Reading Activities in the Primary Grades*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1930.

the use of work books during the morning program. Checked and talked to teacher about the formal marking of report cards.
Total number of conferences held, 3.

EXCERPTS FROM LOGS PRESENTING EXAMPLES OF GROUP MEETINGS HELD
WITH TEACHERS

TEACHER J

October 9, 1935

Kindergarten-primary section

Purpose, to stimulate improvement in teaching techniques

Procedure, demonstrations by teachers and pupils

1. Transition group (reading readiness)
2. Beginning reading techniques
3. Four types of oral-reading techniques in second grade
4. Creative rhythm, using phonograph records

Total number of group meetings held, 6.

TEACHER D

Procedure

1. Reading, demonstration
2. Discussion to clinch points observed
3. Answering teachers' questions concerning demonstration
4. Presentation (by two outstanding teachers)

Reading in the Primary Grades

Opportunity for Use of Reading and Language in Activity Units.

Total number of group meetings held, 5.

TEACHER C

Had several small group conferences for teachers of second grade at which time they raised their own problems.

TEACHER K

Group meetings were devoted to a consideration of planning and classroom performance with no distinction as to individual teachers.

February 13

This meeting was devoted to a discussion of the things to be done in teaching a first-grade reading group. I used an organization which considered the points given in the material sent for the study. Classroom materials were used and specific examples were given. Reports were given concerning the points worked on in the classrooms since the January meeting. New points were to be tried again in the classrooms.

Total number of group meetings held, 3.

SUMMARY

This study indicates the possibilities of helpful supervision of the teacher in service. The nature of her problems points to the fact that supervision must involve a comprehensive program and must reach the teacher's work with the pupils, the community, and her professional associates, as well as deal with subject matter.

Teachers and supervisors have cooperated in carrying out the details of supervision. Undoubtedly there have been great differences in the skill with which the supervisors have attacked their problems. However, the investigation shows that a constructive effort has been made in all cases to provide an environment in which the teacher might grow professionally.

All of the ninety-one teachers covered by this study received supervisory assistance with matters in which they had difficulty. The amount of reported improvement varied considerably, but with one exception all teachers showed improvement.

The supervisory procedures used in the solution of teachers' problems were of demonstrated value. The information contained in the logs suggests the influence in specific situations and with particular individuals. Conferences with the teacher and classroom observation were the two supervisory procedures utilized more frequently than any others. Other supervisory procedures often used were, aiding the teacher in planning, helping pupils with their work, talking to pupils in class, distributing new materials, observing jointly planned lesson, and giving the teacher professional reading.

A review of the logs furnishes evidence that the supervisors attempted to recognize differences among teachers. Results of the experimental study of teaching have been brought to the attention of teachers, and the data have been interpreted in the light of sound principles of education. Successful procedures have been demonstrated. Special consideration has been given to the needs of new and of experienced teachers.

The implications to be drawn from the details of the logs support the other reports of the supervisors that the intensive and carefully planned program under which these teachers worked contributed to their improvement.

THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF CHILD¹

MARSHALL S. HESTER, *Supervising Teacher, Advanced Department, California School for the Deaf*

The term "deaf child" needs certain definition before our subject properly can be developed. Those who work with deaf children understand the term "deaf child" to mean a child in whom the sense of hearing is nonfunctional for the ordinary purposes of life. The deaf child may be born deaf or he may have become deaf in infancy, or after acquiring speech and language through hearing. He probably is able to perceive certain gross sounds; in which case we say that he has sound perception. Sound perception, however, is not useable for transmission of speech and language. We cannot communicate with this deaf child by shouting into his ear. He is deaf and is under no circumstances to be confused with the hard of hearing child who under favorable conditions can hear and understand speech. The problem of the hard of hearing child is excluded from this paper. We are dealing only with the problem of the deaf child.

EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

The objectives and aims in educating the deaf child are little different from the aims in educating any child—physically handicapped or not. The general objectives of education have been set down now briefly, now at length. John Dewey has listed a number of these objectives from various authors. One says that complete living is the aim of education, another says that social efficiency is the objective, still another says that industrial competency is the chief objective. These, or any one of these, or others may be said to be the objectives in educating the deaf child. What we hope to do is to give the deaf child an education to the extent that he may lead a happy and useful life, free from the bitter cup of charity and possessed of that certain measure of security which is the birthright of every American. These objectives are simple or complex as you wish. By education we hope to achieve them.

Rousseau is quoted as saying, "We receive education from three sources—Nature, men, and things." Let us for a moment consider how the deaf child of five years, who has not been to school, receives his education from nature, men, and things. This child has no lan-

¹Address given at The Conference on Special Education, University of California at Los Angeles, July 21-23, 1938.

guage, no vocabulary, no means of communication other than simple gestures. He does not know that he has a name, but his education has started. From nature, men, and things, perhaps he has learned that ice cream tastes good, that spinach does not, or that a hot stove will burn. But he has no language with which clearly to express his learning, or to receive additional learning from others. It may be said that our system of education, our culture, our very thoughts are based on language—either spoken or written language. The average deaf child of five or six years is devoid of language of any sort. How then is his education to be carried forward? It becomes necessary for the teacher of the deaf child to establish an educational point of origin where the child's limited experience, with ice cream for example, can meet the teacher's language, for the beginning of our educational program.

LANGUAGE AND THE DEAF CHILD

The problem of language for the deaf child and the deaf adult is tremendous, and constitutes a special and primary objective of education to be added to those objectives already mentioned. Truly, without proper development of language, the deaf child seldom reaches those objectives of complete living and social efficiency.

INCIDENTAL EDUCATION

Another problem peculiar to the education of the deaf child is that type of learning which may be called incidental education. Education which is acquired informally, for example, while mother is telling the next door neighbor some gossip which the woman across the street told her: casual education acquired by asking a thousand and one seemingly unnecessary questions. One cannot fully appreciate the extent of this kind of education among hearing children until he has associated with the deaf child who is without benefit of this phase of education.

In comparison with the deaf child, the hearing child of the same age has a vast hoard of information, a large and rapidly growing vocabulary, a knowledge of things, and people, and events, most of which was acquired incidentally and without conscious teaching on the part of any one. Most of that which the hearing child learns informally must be taught to the deaf child in the classroom through a slow and formal process.

It is true that the deaf child is probably better for not having acquired some of the incidental education gathered by some hearing boys and girls, but certain forms of casual education are most neces-

sary. Religious education, health education, moral education, character building, all of these and others are developed for the hearing child largely through incidental and informal methods. These forms of education are vital to our objective of social efficiency. The education of the deaf child in these matters must be quite formal and well planned.

The foregoing is intended to convey the idea that in addition to the usual objectives and problems of education, the education of the deaf child involves a special set of difficult-to-achieve objectives, and that all of these difficulties center around the acquisition of language. It is only natural that in the preparation of the deaf child for complete living, language and its acquisition plays the major role.

In the United States are two general types of schools engaged in the preparation and education of the deaf child. These are the day schools such as the 17th Street School in Los Angeles, and the residential schools like the California School for the Deaf, at Berkeley. Some of these schools are operated by churches or by individuals. Roughly, three-quarters of the deaf children attend the residential schools.

DAY SCHOOLS

The day schools for the deaf are operated by city school systems much in the same manner that schools for the hearing child are operated. The children come to school during the day and spend out-of-school hours at home. Of the one hundred and twenty-four public day schools for deaf children in the United States in 1936-37, twenty-two had five or more teachers. Forty-nine day schools had only one teacher. The average number of pupils for each teacher in the day schools was nine.

RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS

The residential schools are operated largely by the states. These are schools where deaf children are gathered from various parts of the state for better classification and grading. The children live at school throughout the school year and return home for vacations. Parents are not required to pay board and maintenance. Of the sixty-five public residential schools in 1936-37, one had less than six teachers. It had one teacher. Forty-three of these schools had twenty or more teachers. The average number of pupils for each teacher was ten.

EDUCATIONAL METHODS

Two main schools of thought prevail among the educators of the deaf. One school advocates the so-called oral method and the other

advocates the so-called combined system. By the oral method is meant the carrying on of instruction by means of lip reading and speech methods in connection with written language. In schools where the oral method is in use, signs and finger spelling are prohibited.

By the combined system is meant the carrying on of instruction by means of lip reading and speech methods in connection with written language and the use of signs and finger spelling on the playground and in the assembly hall and with certain classes which do not progress by speech and lip reading methods. The oralists exclude the use of signs and spelling. The combined system advocates combine signs and spelling with other methods where it is thought to be necessary. Signs are not taught to the children. They pick up the signs from schoolmates much in the same way that hearing children pick up new words from playmates. The use of signs and finger spelling is merely a means of communication resorted to when speech and lip reading fail to achieve the desired results.

In general, the residential schools use the combined system and the day schools use the oral method.

Since the combined system school embodies all those methods and devices used by the oral school the remainder of the discussion is concerned with the preparation of the deaf child in the combined school. And since the California School for the Deaf, at Berkeley, is considered a representative example of the leading residential schools for the deaf we shall discuss methods of preparation at that school.

The five- or six-year old deaf child enters school lacking speech and language. He joins a class of about ten pupils and immediately starts his education. His teacher begins with a few objects such as a ball, a comb, and a toy car. The teacher, holding the ball in her hand and having the attention of the child says "a ball." Similarly, a comb and a car are introduced. These simple words or others are repeated again and again under proper conditions of attention until the child recognizes the word through lip reading. Other objects are added as rapidly as is feasible. Also pictures of a ball and the other objects, with the printed names of the pictured object attached, are introduced. Soon, simple commands such as "run," "come here," and "sit down," are introduced by lip reading, and the proper related activities and repetition. Later "a ball" becomes "a red ball" or "a blue ball," and still later "a pretty red ball" and so on. This sort of thing is developed as rapidly as the children learn to lip-read. The lip-reading vocabulary of some children grows rapidly. While this lip-reading vocabulary is being built the child is being taught to produce the elements of speech. By elements we mean the individual speech sounds. The development of speech in a deaf child requires

a teacher having great patience and much skill in speech-development technique. Suffice it to say that the child learns to make the various speech sounds through observation and imitation of the movements of the teacher's speech organs. As the child's ability to make the various speech sounds develops, he is taught to combine these sounds into words and phrases.

This development of speech and lip reading is largely a matter of individual instruction. While this individual work is being carried on the other members of the class are engaged in various sorts of sense-training activities and other exercises.

TEACHING TECHNIQUES

Reading and written language are introduced in the early part of the first year. There are special techniques for teaching these subjects to the deaf child. If the preparation of his foundation in language and reading is poorly done the deaf child is saddled with an additional handicap.

At the end of the first year in school the deaf child has traveled far educationally, but he is pitifully far behind his hearing brother of the same age. The second year of work is carefully integrated with the work of the first year, and rapid strides are made in language, reading and lip reading. The spoken vocabulary has not yet caught up with the reading, writing, and lip-reading vocabulary. If progress has been good during the first two years of school the deaf child enters the first grade, where his speech, lip reading, language, and reading work is made more complex.

Due to individual differences some children do not develop far in their ability to lip-read and speak. Consequently, such children generally have difficulty in keeping up with the class. All too often the child whose speech and lip reading is retarded does not know what is going on in the group, and when he does know, he has difficulty in expressing himself in speech. At the end of the first or second grade, pupils who lack ability in speech and lip reading are grouped together in a class where speech and lip reading are minimized and the children are taught to spell on their fingers. They are not taught to use signs. To the combined system advocate this is a matter of fitting the method to the child. At any rate, finger spelling is little more than impermanent writing and it does provide a rapid and sure means of communication.

With the end of the second grade the pupil advances to the intermediate department where social science and arithmetic are introduced at the proper time. The intermediate department embraces the third

to the seventh grades. In this department the greatest stress is placed on written language and reading. From the intermediate department the child goes to the eighth grade in the advanced department where history, general science, hygiene, civics, and algebra are introduced in the proper grades. After about fourteen years in school the deaf child is graduated from the twelfth grade. The twelfth-grade work in the school for the deaf corresponds roughly with ninth-grade work in the public school. In other words, the deaf child requires about twelve to fourteen years of schooling to accomplish the usual nine years' work in the public school.

COLLEGE FOR THE DEAF

Some of the graduates of the school for the deaf continue their education at Gallaudet College—the only college for the deaf in the world—at Washington, D. C. Other graduates continue their education in the public high school, or in a trade school. In addition to the graduates some deaf children drop out of school before reaching the twelfth grade.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR THE DEAF

Vocational education, a very important phase of the education of the deaf child, has been reserved for the last. The deaf boy goes into the sloyd shop for two hours a day when he is eleven or twelve years old. There he learns to use his hands and to use tools. Also he learns something of the language of tools and work. After one to three years in the sloyd shop—depending on the degree of maturity—the deaf boy is put into one of the shops for a trial period of one year or one-half year, depending on his age. He is transferred to another shop at the end of the trial period. This tryout period is repeated in the various shops until the boy has had a trial in each of the school shops, namely, the print shop, the cabinetmaking and upholstery shop, the shoe repair shop, the bake shop, and the horticulture shop. After he has tried each shop he is permanently placed in the shop which seems best suited to his ability and inclination. After several years of work in a shop most of the boys become fairly proficient at their particular trade. After leaving school they meet with varying degrees of success. In recent years the boys from the shoe repair shop have met with the greatest success.

The girl of about twelve years begins primary sewing and continues it a year or two. Then she goes to the advanced sewing class where the various phases of sewing are developed, on up to dress designing and advanced dressmaking. In addition, those girls who show aptitude are trained in power-machine operation.

While the girls are learning to sew from year to year they take their turns at doing much of the housework. During the last one or two years the girl is in school she is given a course in home making.

Both boys and girls who show unusual ability are given training in various sorts of art work.

In summary it may be said that the objective in the California School for the Deaf is to prepare the deaf child so that he will be able to maintain himself socially and economically and that in this preparation the acquisition of language, the development of character, and the building of vocational competence is emphasized.

PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF LEARNING THROUGH INTERGROUP ACTIVITIES

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MARGARET CLAREY, LILLIAN PARTIN, IDA CAREY, ELIZABETH
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Within the past few years the educational world has become acutely conscious of the need for closer unity between the elementary and secondary schools. The elementary school has been carrying on an informal program for a number of years and has been calling upon the secondary school to fall in line.

To a group of teachers in the Daniel Freeman School in Inglewood it seemed that more than "falling in line" was necessary to bring about closer articulation between the local elementary school and the high school. The members of this group believed that a critical evaluation of both the elementary and the secondary school programs in the light of fundamental educational purposes should be made by a teacher group. Putting their belief into action this progressive group found the following conditions prevailing in the upper elementary levels in the Daniel Freeman School:

1. Pupils entering junior high school were confused by the greater amount of freedom found there.
2. Pupils confronted with the broad curriculum of the junior high school were frequently unable to choose wisely their electives or hobbies.
3. Pupils found difficulty in adjusting to the several teachers when formerly they had looked to one teacher for guidance.
4. Pupils lacked self-control, and a sense of responsibility for group welfare.

This group of teachers then turned to an examination of the elementary school and found the following conditions prevailing:

1. Approximately 55 per cent of the pupils in grades four, five, and six were above average in intelligence, yet these pupils were being offered only meager opportunity to partake of an enriched curriculum.
2. The interest motive prevailed as a teaching device, but no intensive study of pupil interest in general had been made, nor had an effort to develop wider interests of the pupils been attempted.

3. Maximum use of the possibilities for child growth was not being made, notably in physical education, appreciation subjects, and creative expression.

4. No attempt had been made to analyze the problem of democratic social living or to plan an environment which would promote it.

In order to attack this problem of providing for the adjustment of pupils in the Daniel Freeman School, the faculty proposed a study of the specific situation with the following objectives:

1. To offer greater opportunity for children to adjust to a democratic social order through participation in the community life of the school.
2. To preserve continuity in the experience of the child by eliminating the factors in the elementary school which tend to compartmentalize his life.
3. To increase the possibilities for a richer, more complete development of the whole personality of the child.
4. Through these means to prevent the shock of drastic change from the elementary to the secondary level.

AN EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM

In order to carry into effect the aims enunciated an experimental program was set up. A preliminary survey was made of the interests of the individuals in the three groups concerned in the experiment: one fourth-grade class, one fifth-grade class and one sixth-grade class.

Although the "unit-of-learning" procedure was in effect in this school, and experience was centered about large areas of interest on each grade level, there was no insistence that every activity of the day must tie in with a unit of work. Drill and practice were used when found to be necessary. However, at a given hour each day the regular class activities were suspended, and each room became a laboratory for some special interest guided by the teacher best qualified in the particular field. Each pupil chose the activity in which he wished to engage from the list of activities offered for the day. Sections were then made up of pupils ranging in age from eight to thirteen years. Thus each child might have his part in planning and working toward the common ends desired. This plan was called the intergroup activities program.

Teachers and principal conferred several times regarding the selection of activities suitable to the group.

It was necessary in several instances to combine activities in order to adapt the time budget to the three grades participating. The teacher in each grade presented the outline of the plan to her pupils and asked for suggestions for activities, not mentioning the

tentative list which had already been prepared by the teachers. The suggestions offered by the children were then written on the black-board, and with slight adjustment the two lists were closely correlated. The children then chose some interest for each day of the week. After minor adjustments to equalize the size of sections, the schedule of classes was set up, with the laboratory period from 1:30 to 2:00 o'clock.

The activities finally decided upon were games of various forms, boys' tumbling, girls' tumbling, folk dancing, clog dancing, gardening, glee club, "Tooth Templars," handicraft, fine arts, and student government, including safety, sanitation, thrift, fire drill, and the like.

SURVEY OF PUPIL REACTION

In January, 1936, in order to check the reaction of the children to this type of program, they were asked to write answers to the following questions:

1. What do you think of the activities program?
2. Have you enjoyed it?
3. What do you feel you have gained from taking part in the various activities of which you have been a part?
4. Is there anything you think worth while that you would like added to this program?
5. Is there any part of this program that you would like left out because you feel it is not worth while?
6. What do you feel you have contributed to this program to help make it a success?

The results of the questionnaire were compiled, and at a conference of the teachers the school nurse, physical educational supervisor, and the principal, the results were reviewed. As a consequence of the findings and of the teacher's attitude toward the innovation, a full hour daily from 2:00 to 3:00 o'clock was given to the program for the second half of the year.

Two new activities were added, storytelling and dramatics. Others were combined and, where the need was felt, others were expanded. For instance, the "tooth templar" club was changed to a health club; the gardening program was expanded to include other phases, and named nature study; another class in handicraft was added.

When school opened in September, 1936, a third-year group had been included in the activities program. This required the addition of a fourth teacher to the instructional staff. The school nurse, as well as a piano accompanist and a playground referee from the

recreation project, was included. The program had been adjusted to give the hour from 11:00 to 12:00 to this work.

Because of the flexibility of the program and its adaptability to pupil needs and interests, and as a result of the widening interests of the pupils the schedule of activities grew apace. The great interest in handicraft evidenced the previous year seemed to be expressed fully in the classroom work. There had been an increasing desire for music and as a result several new music sections were added.

PLANNING THE PROGRAM FOR 1936-37

In a special meeting held at the close of the semester in June, 1936, the following conclusions were reached by the teachers and principal.

1. Community service as a unifying force is most valuable and should be considered the centralizing theme of the intergroup program of activities.
2. Activities tending to develop the cultural side of the child's life are important and should be expanded another year.
3. Possibilities in the field of sports have been only 50 per cent realized. The staff should organize to care for this need.

Plans were made by the teaching group to expand the community service aspect of the activities program as follows:

1. Include several activities, under a recreation department of community service, as follows:

Folk dancing	Dramatics
Nature study field work	Handicraft
Choral club	

 One pupil-officer in administrative department should be a coordinator known as director of recreation.
2. Combine playground department, parks and grounds department, service committee, milk committee, and office monitor in one department known as the maintenance department.
3. Give library department full hour period.
4. No changes contemplated in health department.
5. Include safety committee, thrift department, fire warden in administration department.
6. Include all children in large community meeting to be held monthly.

In order to develop further the cultural phases of the program, art, music, and literature appreciation were added.

The following changes were planned in order to enlarge the sports program:

1. Organization of four groups, based on ability to compete.
2. Establishment of periods to be increased to full hour; part of the time to be used for planning if necessary.
3. Decision that one objective should be intermural programs to carry over into free-play periods.

It was further planned to organize the program so as to insure reasonable balance for all pupils.

As a matter of procedure it was planned that certain general themes be made the bases for activities offered on certain days. A program for the different days was drawn up as follows:

Monday—departmental meetings

Tuesday—miscellaneous; recreation

Wednesday—sports

Thursday—culture

Friday—recreation.

A list of desirable activities for each day was set up and teachers selected the activities for which they wished to assume responsibility. The following tentative schedule was set up for September, 1937.

Instructor	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
A	Administrative department of community service	Harmonica band	Sports class A (boys)	Interpretive dancing	Handicraft
B	Maintenance department of community service	Boy's tumbling	Sports class B (boys)	Art	Girl's tumbling
C	Library department community service	Music appreciation	Sports class A (girls)	Glee club	Choral club
D	Health department, community service	Dramatics	Sports class B (girls)	Literature	Art appreciation

A report of the objectives, plans, and accomplishments of certain phases of the program for the year 1936-37 follows.

COMMUNITY SERVICE

The student government activity began with a combination of the safety committee and the thrift committee, numbering fifty pupils; and meetings were held one half-hour each week. When the group had increased to a sufficient number, other functions were added, such as milk duty, flag raising, assistance at fire drill, lunch duty, and library help.

No detailed program was planned in advance for this activity since it was believed that it should be a gradual unfolding of the ideas of pupils and teachers, beginning with the immediate problems of the pupil environment, establishing their relationship to the school as a community, and leading out from this in a few cases to an appreciation of the larger locality.

The teacher directing this activity exercised extreme care to avoid the inspectorial and reporting type of duty and to emphasize the idea of service to the school. The pupils at once became alert for ways to help improve their school community. A parks and grounds department was created to plant flowers and shrubs, and to see that papers were thrown into trash cans. Older children began to help younger ones in their play activities at noon, and a recreation department was born. By the middle of the first year it became necessary to add a second section to the weekly schedule, each one meeting for an hour. Presently the idea of student government seemed inadequate, and the name was changed to community service.

Even before the end of the 1936-37 school year a further integration was in process. As has been stated, the "tooth templar" club had expanded to include other health interests. After a time it was suggested that this health club, as it was now called, be considered as the health department of the community service. The president of the health club became one of the administrative officers in the community service. His department checked certain matters of health protection and made recommendations to the sanitation department.

In every instance a definite need for a service has arisen first and the children have developed their own plan for taking care of it. When this has been done, any one who wished to be considered for a given office has prepared and delivered before the group a brief speech outlining his views about the office he seeks and his fitness for it. Candidates have then been voted on by the entire student body and the required number duly elected.

During the current school year, the community service department has been extended and is becoming the coordinating influence of the entire program; the parks and grounds department has absorbed the garden club; the library and playground department have been divided; the music, handicraft, and dramatic activities have been taken over by the recreation department; the corps unit includes the administrative officers of the whole school, such as mayor, treasurer, and others. Instead of 50 pupils as in the beginning, 151 pupils now participate in community service activities with 55 in positions of direct administrative assistance to the principal of the school.

Representatives from all departments discuss important matters with the primary group. The nurse carries on the school health program through the health department. Once a month all pupils in the upper grades hold an assembly in the auditorium to discuss major school problems. Representatives from the lower grades are invited to this meeting which is conducted by the mayor and his staff. Later, it is planned to include the whole school in this community undertaking.

Gradually the interests of the pupils in this school democracy are reaching out beyond the intimate school situation into the larger community. The children are curious to know how the Inglewood Health Center operates, how the county library is administered, what kind of dairy their milk comes from, and why there is no city ambulance service. As a result of this growing interest in civic affairs, the pupils of the Daniel Freeman School decided to invite representatives of various Inglewood city interests to talk to them during Public Schools Week. During the question period following each speech the children's questions showed the results of their efforts in the administration of their own smaller community, the school.

The following community service activities were rendered by the pupils:

- | | |
|--|---------------------------|
| Safety duty | Inspection of buildings |
| Supervision of bicycles and riding | Guarding street crossings |
| Supervising kindergarten children | Arbor duty |
| who walk home | Supervising basements |
| Police duty | |
| (There are two officers only who have power to decide issues) | |
| Selling of milk | |
| Custody of the flag | |
| Raising and lowering | |
| Morning assembly | |
| Carrying on of school thrift program in all grades | |
| Fire inspection and drills | |
| Maintenance service | |
| Care of school furniture | |
| Transfer of furniture from one room to another | |
| Setting up of auditorium | |
| Building stage additions | |
| Humane service | |
| (Checking on animals which come into the grounds, returning to owners, or caring for them until City Humane Officer comes) | |
| Messenger service for principal and clerk | |
| Library service | |
| Planning ways and means of increasing the number of books in the library—money-raising projects | |
| Page duty in school library—collecting and delivery | |

Escorting lower grade pupils to and from library and assisting them to find books
 Planning class schedule of library periods
 Instructing pupils in use of Dewey Decimal System
 Making picture books for primary rooms
 Story telling

Health Service

Inspection of milk
 Inspection of drinking fountains
 Inspection of lavatories
 Inspection of room temperatures
 Carrying on health program of the school
 Provision of sponsors for lower grades, who tell stories and help with health program
 Provision of representatives to carry information from health meetings to various rooms for discussion and suggestions
 Provision for a health department member to assist with first aid during noon period
 Securing health films and showing them to the other members of the school
 Providing health material for library use (making of health books and posters)
 Teaching others the symptoms and incubation period of communicable diseases
 Instructing in the prevention of colds
 Bringing to the attention of the neighborhood the services extended through the Inglewood Health Center

Parks and Grounds Service

Beautifying the school grounds
 Picking up papers
 Taking out weeds
 Planting flowers around the bungalows
 Planting shrubs
 Planting flowers for May Day
 Making window boxes and planting flowers in them

Playground Department Service

Helping keep up the playground
 Marking fields
 Picking up papers on playground
 Keeping a watchful eye on small children
 Checking playground equipment
 Seeing that all rough games are played in field
 Making suggestions to parks and grounds department
 Setting a good example for other children
 Keeping games going for other children

EVALUATION

The teachers participating in the intergroup activities program checked it against the values which they cherished for all children through education. Considering the span of a child's experience for this year as 100 per cent, they judged that 90 per cent of the health program, 60 per cent of the esthetic appreciation, 55 per cent of the

social understanding, and at least half of the creative expression and general all-round development were being realized through this program. Three points in the general evaluation of the program deserve special mention:

1. The influence upon the general conduct and morale of the school was noticeable. Children grew in self-direction and at the same time learned to respect the word of one who receives his authority from the consent of those governed.
2. Many of those pupils in the upper quartile in intelligence found in positions of responsibility opportunities for enriched experience.
3. Pupils attempting to resign from office without valid reasons, were lead to see that those who have been endowed with the gift of leadership have an obligation to society.

The principal considered the intergroup activities program to have definite values for children as well as for the school as a whole for the following reasons:

1. The children were afforded opportunities for the development of initiative and responsibility since the program was largely child-planned rather than adult imposed and had its basis in child interest rather than arbitrary subject matter.
2. The program tended to lower the artificial barriers of grade, age, and extra curriculum, and tended to give continuity to life.
3. The school seemed to have caught a fundamental law of happiness in its idea of community service. If the well-adjusted individual is the happy one, these pupils made a definite contribution to society.
4. The experiences of the child were greatly enriched through the expansion of the physical and cultural phases of the program.
5. This type of curriculum organization made for better utilization of teacher talents.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS IN THE USE OF RADIO IN THE CLASSROOM

ERLE A. KENNEY, *Director, Alameda City School of the Air*

The school administrator plays an important part in determining the success of radio in the classroom. The classroom teacher can use radio more effectively with her pupils if she has the intelligent cooperation of the principal, the supervisor, and the superintendent. The most able efforts on the part of the teacher may be nullified by a lack of proper assistance from the school administrators. On the other hand, principals, supervisors, superintendents, and trustees may take the initiative in encouraging effective use of radio in the classroom. They may introduce radio into classrooms that were previously without it, and help teachers already using radio to improve their methods. These ends may be accomplished both by the provision of better facilities for listening, and by enlightened suggestions and supervision.

RADIO IN THE MODERN SCHOOL

Many administrators do not realize the great strides that have been made in the field of radio in education, and for this reason they have neglected to keep in step with the use of this modern teaching aid. When administrators realize that a child spends about six hours a week in listening to the radio, they will encourage the use of radio in the classroom and thus afford the children the opportunity of listening to programs that are educational and worth while. The schools must face the fact that it is the task of education to develop logical thinking on the part of the child to enable him to distinguish the bad from the good that he hears on the air.

COOPERATION OF TEACHERS ESSENTIAL TO SUCCESS

If listening to the radio in the classroom is to be helpful, it is of paramount importance that the idea should be accepted wholeheartedly by the classroom teachers. No matter how enthusiastic an administrator may be, he should not coerce teachers to use radio. If teachers approach the new medium in an unfavorable state of mind, they are almost certain to use it ineffectively. Rather, the administrator who wishes to introduce radio should try to win the interest and support of teachers by helping them to learn what other school systems are doing in this field and arranging for them to hear some

of the particular programs he recommends. If a committee of teachers is appointed to investigate the use of radio and to assist the administrator in planning its use in local schools, the cooperation of the teachers will be gained and they will be aided in preparing for the use of the new tool in education. The administrator would be wise to introduce radio gradually, first letting a few enthusiastic teachers try it out. These teachers who pioneer can discover the best programs and methods and place their experience at the disposal of their colleagues. Their success will induce less venturesome teachers to supplement their instruction by the use of radio.

Sometimes the assistance of the board of education or the school trustees will be required in order to secure needed equipment, or to approve revisions in the curriculum which the use of radio may suggest. Such a liaison is particularly the province of the administrator. Teachers must depend upon him to represent the needs of the school and win the cooperation of elected school officials. The administrator should exert himself to the utmost in this important duty. He should impress upon his teachers the important part they play in determining the success of an enterprise, for in their actual use of radio and in their contacts with parents and taxpayers they will do much to mold local opinion. If groups of parents, or organizations such as chambers of commerce, are interested in the project, the administrator can suggest to them the most suitable forms of cooperation.

Often the administrator has not taken the lead in introducing radio into the classroom, but is approached by teachers who wish to try it. The requests of such teachers should be met with an open but critical mind. They should be encouraged and assisted to make any use of the radio that will assist their teaching, but the administrator should guard against the use of radio merely as a fad, the indiscriminate turning on of the radio without consideration as to why it is being used. The cause of radio education will in the long run be benefited if the administrator discourages random and thoughtless tuning in without care in choosing the most appropriate subjects or programs. Most teachers who seek the assistance of their administrators in using the radio in the classroom will have a well-planned purpose, and they deserve the fullest cooperation. The administrator should not be satisfied merely with granting their reasonable requests. He should himself study the problems involved in order that he may assist the project more intelligently and guide it so that it may be a credit to his school system.

The administrator can perform a great service by helping to secure suitable radio equipment for classrooms. He is in a position to convince the public and the school board of the importance of

radio in the classroom. An administrator, better than a classroom teacher, can present to school boards, dads' clubs, parent-teacher associations, Rotary and Kiwanis clubs, chambers of commerce, and other civic organizations, the advantages to be gained from the use of radio in schools. The administrator is specifically charged with public relations, and no teacher would appear before the school board or the public without his approval. Thus, the administrator has a particular responsibility to see that attention is directed to the advantage of radio education whether he does it himself or delegates teachers to act for him. The prestige attached to his position as principal or superintendent gives added weight to his explanations.

KNOWLEDGE OF NECESSARY EQUIPMENT

The administrator should know not only why schools should have radio equipment, but what equipment is necessary. If radios are provided from school funds, he will be expected to make specific requests and recommendations to the board of education or the school trustees. If radio sets are furnished by outside donors—dads' clubs, parent-teachers associations, or others—members of these organizations will come to him to ask what the school needs. Dealers or manufacturers who wish to lend sets will approach the administrator and he must know whether their offering is acceptable for his school. The administrator can save the school board or outside donor thousands of dollars if he is fully informed about equipment. At the same time he can protect his teachers and pupils from having to use unsatisfactory equipment, that, incidentally, may cost more than satisfactory equipment. Often the entire success of radio education lies in his hands when he chooses or recommends equipment, for nothing causes both teachers and pupils to feel greater antagonism to radio education than unsuitable equipment that gives inferior reception. No equipment is better than poor equipment; nothing will cause a more complete public reaction against the administrator's "new-fangled fad." If the first class that is equipped cannot enjoy the program because of suitable equipment, the administrator may have difficulty in securing any radio equipment in the future. He should acquaint himself with the advantages of a small portable radio, a large radio, and the possibilities of a public-address system.

It often happens that parents and school boards would like to place radios in the schools, but feel that they cannot afford them. If the administrator is able to show the low cost at which radios can be provided, the project of equipping the classroom may be undertaken when it otherwise might not have been possible. Many organizations take an active part in the schools and look to the administra-

tor for suggestions and leadership as to the way in which they can be helpful. In making his recommendation the administrator must know whether he will use the auditorium or the classroom for listening. He may plan to use both.

SELECTION OF ROOMS FOR RADIO

When the auditorium and classrooms have facilities for radio programs, each class may hear broadcasts at any time in its own room while the receiving unit in the auditorium will be available for special groups and special occasions. For instance, an assembly program might include listening to a broadcast or the auditorium might be used to demonstrate educational programs to parents or other groups.

When facilities are limited, one portable receiving set that may be taken from room to room is more practical than several permanently equipped rooms. When a portable set is available, it is not necessary for pupils to leave their classrooms. Otherwise pupils must go from their classroom to the room where they will hear the program in time for the beginning of the broadcast. In this way they lose time from other activities and possibly disturb the rest of the school.

If a limited number of classrooms are to be permanently equipped, preference should be given to classrooms in which are found (1) those grades to which the programs will be of most value; (2) those groups which most need the help from radio, such as special sections, classes for the blind, classes for the hard of hearing, and the like; and (3) those teachers who are most interested in adapting radio to the classroom. If only one room is to be permanently equipped it is a most difficult problem to decide which room this should be. The auditorium seems unfriendly and barnlike when it is occupied by only a small group. As many school buildings were planned during a period when very little attention was given to acoustics, a large number of school auditoriums are poorly adapted for hearing not only to radio programs but to stage productions. If, on the other hand, a smaller room is used for listening, the advantages of radio are never available to large groups.

If a portable radio is used care should be taken to place it advantageously in the room so that all listeners may hear distinctly. In order to obtain the best results it may be necessary to experiment by placing the instrument in various parts of the room. If a loudspeaker is permanently installed in a certain part of the room, careful test should be made to be certain that it is placed in the best position.

PUBLIC-ADDRESS SYSTEM

In schools provided with public-address installation, a radio set may be included in the public-address panel. The amplifying unit of the public-address system provides the necessary volume for radio programs to be heard through the loud-speakers that are connected with the classrooms. Some public-address systems have two or more radios or input channels. With this modern equipment two or more different programs may be made available at once, thereby giving each class the opportunity to hear the program that is best suited to it, for a program may be given for the third grade on one station at the same time that another program is given on a different station for the eighth grade.

With the public-address system, classes within the school may listen to a variety of programs by their own teachers and fellow pupils. The programs when received in the classroom or auditorium sound as though they had come in over the air.

The added feature of a turntable for playing records gives the public-address system an even wider scope for usefulness in the school. Some features are available as ordinary phonograph records, while others are recorded as electrical transcriptions. Both of these types of records may be played on a public-address system equipped with a two-speed turntable. The electrical transcription differs from the ordinary phonograph record in that it plays at a reduced speed ($33\frac{1}{3}$ instead of 78 revolutions a minute), it is recorded at minimum volume, and the number of record grooves for each inch is greater.

To secure the most efficient use of radio in a school, listening should be planned in advance. Planning is particularly necessary in schools with limited facilities in order that it may be decided in advance what programs will be received and what groups will have an opportunity to listen. Disappointment and disorder are likely to result if conflicts regarding this matter are not settled in advance. School departments handle this problem in different ways. In every case, however, it is the administrator's responsibility to see that listening is planned. He may not personally arrange all the details, but no plan of listening can be carried out without his cooperation. Furthermore, only the administrator has the authority to adjust conflicts and settle differences which may arise in regard to the listening schedule. School listening is likely to run more smoothly if the administrator keeps in immediate touch with problems and intervenes promptly, than if he allows friction and misunderstanding to accumulate.

SCHEDULE FOR LISTENING

Sometimes the listening schedule is sent out by the superintendent's office along with other school bulletins. This is the case particularly in those school systems which provide programs that are an essential part of the curricular content. Often a committee of supervisors and teachers assists the superintendent in recommending optional programs for listening. Many teachers in rural schools receive listening schedules from the county rural supervisor or the state department of education. This is done usually where a state or county presents radio programs particularly intended for rural schools.

In other systems the listening schedule is arranged within each individual school. In this case the principal frequently appoints a teacher or committee of teachers to recommend various programs and arrange the listening schedule after the various class teachers have examined the recommended list and sent in their requests. Occasionally, parents or outside experts serve on these advisory committees. Even if a general listening schedule is prepared for all the schools of a city or county, it should be subject to readjustment within each school. Because the needs of individual schools and classes differ, the maximum benefit from the use of radio will be secured only by such an adjustment.

The administrator should remember that teachers, parents, or outside experts who serve on planning committees are not only performing a service to the school, but are themselves being educated. He should direct the activities of the planning committee in such a way that the teachers will be given added insight into radio education.

It is particularly difficult to schedule radio listening in high schools. When pupils have individual schedules, broadcasts in one subject are sure to conflict with classes in another subject for a certain number of pupils. The administrator has particular responsibility in deciding what shall be done in such instances. One way of solving this problem is to excuse a pupil from the conflicting class if he attends the broadcast. In certain schools the pupils who have no conflicting classes listen to the broadcast and later give a report on it for the benefit of those pupils who could not listen. This solution is probably of more benefit to the person reporting than to the consumer of the second-hand information which may be given a different interpretation by the reporter and will lack the interest and emotional tone of the original presentation.

PLANS FOR LISTENING

In the early days of educational radio, it was very difficult to plan listening, but today many aids are available. The administrator

should acquaint his staff with these aids. When such material arrives it should be immediately placed in the hands of the teachers who will use it. The information offered will then be at the teachers disposal in advance. Very often, if the administrator does not realize that some of his teachers are interested in this new tool of education, the listening schedules may be left on his desk or relegated to the wastebasket. When he realizes the interest of teachers in this material, it is a simple matter for him to post these schedules on the bulletin board or to give them to the teachers who are interested.

Many cases where information on broadcasting is neglected are brought to the attention of the Alameda City School of the Air. The listening schedules are sent to the schools a month in advance. Requests for schedules are frequently received from teachers whose schools are already on the mailing list. In this event programs are sent them and they are informed that a program had already been sent to their principal. The value of bulletins is entirely lost if they remain in the principal's office until the broadcasts they describe are past.

Teachers' manuals, or listening aids for the children with many educational radio programs in connection, are distributed either free or for a small charge. An important part of the duties of the planning committee is to secure in advance of the broadcast the needed number of aids for teachers and pupils. It is particularly necessary for teachers who live far from the broadcasting center to realize the length of time it will take to secure a reply. They should order their material well in advance. The administrator should cooperate promptly in this ordering and distribution, and see to it that any necessary funds are promptly available.

The administrator should also aid his teachers in discovering what visual and reading aids are afforded by the school system and other agencies. He can be of help in securing the cooperation of the various departments of the school administration and outside agencies, such as the public library. Appropriate exhibits, charts, maps, colored pictures, diagrams, slides, and motion pictures may be assembled by committee and made available to the schools of the system weeks in advance of the broadcast.

The actual preparation of the class for listening, and the management of the class during listening are tasks of the classroom teacher. In his supervisory capacity, the administrator may offer suggestions for improved practices. He should emphasize that preparation for listening to a broadcast is as important as preparation for any other type of classroom activity, and should discourage teachers from turning on the radio with no preparation of the class and no planning of

the objectives to be gained from listening. Similarly the administrator should see that discussion is held at the conclusion of the program in order that the children may associate what they have heard with the other classroom activities. To turn the radio on and then off without preparation or follow-up will have no educational or social value. The administrator should guard against too great emphasis on mere retention of facts by the pupils. He should realize that the most distinctive value of radio education lies in its power to stir the emotions, imagination, and creative abilities of his pupils in making the subject come thrillingly to life. The supervisor who insists on routine factual tests after each broadcast in order to measure its benefits, may by that very measure be depriving his schools of the greatest benefit radio can give.

CONSTRUCTIVE SUGGESTIONS

The administrator can do much to improve the quality of radio presentations if on appropriate occasions he expresses an opinion in his official capacity. Both local stations and the major networks are interested to learn the reactions of educators to their presentations. The station should be informed of what programs the schools are using, and why, and what changes are recommended. While positive reactions should be emphasized, the administrator may enter an occasional protest against programs but such a protest should be accompanied by constructive suggestions for change. A letter from a principal or superintendent who can speak for an entire school or school system is likely to carry more weight than a letter from a single classroom teacher. If a teacher writes, giving interesting details gleaned from actual classroom use of radio, her report may be accompanied by a letter from her principal or superintendent.

ADMINISTRATION COOPERATION

An administrator may be asked to serve on an educational radio advisory committee. Whether the invitation is from a local station or a network, whether it covers a special educational program or the general offerings of the station; as a civic duty, the administrator should either accept or nominate an alternate, in order to advance the educational activities. It is only through the cooperation of the educator and the broadcaster that radio in education can achieve a high standard.

COME, LET'S PLAY

ALICE P. ALLCUTT, *San Francisco State College*

Come, let's play. This invitation should meet with instant response from every primary child. Therefore, when teachers receive a nonenthusiastic response to a scheduled game period, which should represent a normal activity of childhood, they should look closely at the methods, scheduling, allocation of play areas, and equipment to see whether or not they offer some hint as to the cause of the difficulty.

The generally accepted practice for the scheduling of primary play periods seems to be one in which the pupils of the kindergarten and first three grades occupy the play area for a certain period; at the termination of this period the upper grades are scheduled to use the same area. In the schools in which the enrollment is large and the play space small, even the primary grades are restricted to a limited area which may consist of a small circle from which the children may not stray.

PLAYGROUND PLANNING

The Playground and Recreation Association of America recommends playground areas of 140 square feet per pupil.¹ If certain limitations of the game ring as a satisfactory medium for directed play are recognized possibilities should be considered for a readjustment of play schedules and a reallocation of available play space. Several suggestions present themselves for consideration.

1. The continuous recess (scheduling of not more than three groups to the playground at one time).
2. The closing of streets bordering the schoolyard during the morning and noon periods.
3. Remodeling of flat school roofs to provide additional play space.
4. Reconstruction of basements to provide light, and well ventilated space for apparatus and for rainy-day play activities.
5. Allocation of game equipment and apparatus in specified areas or zones, and opportunity for pupils to choose the activity which has the greatest appeal to them.
6. Allocation of certain areas for equipment and activities designed to meet special needs.

The first suggestion has the advantage of providing each child with more playground space, but it has the disadvantage of disturb-

¹James Rogers, "The Importance of the School Playground in the Physical Education Program," *American Physical Education Review*, XXXII (1927), 591.

ing the work of those teachers whose classrooms look out on the playground. The second plan has been used with marked success in city areas where play space has been at a premium. Closed streets afford opportunity for ball games, chasing and running games for older pupils without danger to or interference from younger children. The third suggestion is not only feasible but has many points in its favor, one of these being the elimination of noise in rooms adjoining the playground. The fourth and sixth of the foregoing suggestions may well be considered together, for if basements can be reconstructed so as to provide airy, light, and sheltered quarters for physical education activities, the space might well be utilized for physical education stunts and posture games designed to remove postural and other physical defects. The fifth suggestion is one that should have the consideration of every person who directs, conducts, or supervises a physical education period. One has only to observe the directed play periods at the school, and the free play periods in the schoolyard and at home to learn much about children's likes, dislikes, needs, abilities, and limitations. In this plan the following opportunities are found:

1. Wider variety of the game activity.
2. Opportunity for utilization of pupil interest.
3. Elimination of class and grade boundaries within certain grade ranges as grades 1-3, 4-6, 7-8, thus promoting better social and physical adjustments in the game period.
4. Opportunity for remedial instruction for handicapped children in zoned areas.
5. Opportunity for children to have specialized direction in certain areas under teachers who are willing to make the best possible use of game material, equipment, and pupil interest in that zone.
6. Stimulation of teachers to greater activity and effort on the playground.

PLAY ACTIVITY ZONES

How may the schoolyard be zoned for certain activities and what may these activities be? A playground may be carefully planned to give areas for the following groups of activities:

1. Stunts, jumping, hopping, swinging, throwing, running, and so on, with or without apparatus.
2. Games, such as hopscotch, ball games, games using a net, putting greens, and the like.
3. Large soft-ball games.
4. Organized chasing and team games.
5. Circle games.

In such a zoning of the playground certain problems of administration may arise, namely (1) the prevention of overcrowding of one area and the nonuse of another, (2) the exclusive choice of one area by a pupil who might benefit by variation in activities, and (3) the wandering of pupils from one zone to another. These may be handled (a) by fixing the maximum number allowed to use any one area at a given play period, (b) by limiting the use of one area to two consecutive periods to be followed by a period in other areas, and (c) by expecting the child to make one choice each period.

Such a plan should not only stimulate the teachers in charge of a specified area or zone to make their section interesting and desirable to the children, and productive of vigorous results, but should also give the children an opportunity to select play companions of similar interests and abilities. In such a plan the kindergarten children would probably profit by a separate recess period which would enable them to make the adjustment to group games before being confronted with the problem of selecting an activity from a group of unfamiliar ones.

CIRCLE GAMES

In the light of the foregoing suggestions the game circle should be considered in all of its time-worn ramifications. At best it is designed, many primary teachers feel, as a matter of administrative expediency. In it are handed down from past years, games which in the light of present-day knowledge, afford but small part of the benefit to be expected from the play period. Sometimes one wonders if the circle-game period is not conducted along the line of least resistance. A popular circle game, Cat and Rat, may be taken as an example to show the disadvantages of this type of activity. Here is an opportunity, if the rats are skillful, for two or three pairs of children to perform during a recess period and a minimum amount of activity is provided for the maximum number of children for the maximum amount of time. A game which requires a minimum of activity contributes little to the productivity of the play period.

Such circle games as those which are chanted, not really sung—"Did you Ever See a Lassie?," "Farmer in the Dell," "Muffin Man," "Jolly Miller," and "Looby Loo"—require both vocal and physical activity at the same time, thus placing too great a strain on the child. One need only to consult a teacher of music to learn the detrimental effect of such activity upon children's voices, tone quality, and sense of rhythm.

It is only fair to add that the circle formation which usually limits activity and large muscle development, originality, and normal

progression in play development does afford an opportunity for certain games which have a definite contribution to make to the physical education program. Such games as the Sleeping Man, Dodge Ball (when players are often changed), Skip Tag (once around), and Three Deep are illustrations of this type of activity.

The circle game also provides opportunities for quiet games to be used on hot days, or on the days when the game period must be carried on indoors.

If teachers can dismiss the deep-seated belief that the child's playground activities must follow certain cut and dried rules, territorial limitations, and game lists and consider the games and activities made possible by many pieces of equipment now on the market, a first step will have been taken in the direction of modernization and improvement of the play program.

In any discussion of new equipment there always arises the bugbear of cost. To hope for the immediate establishment of fully equipped playgrounds is perhaps too optimistic, but it might not be amiss to make an effort toward gradually attaining this objective. As teachers feel the importance and necessity of reviving the directed physical activity period, consideration of what is valuable in the way of primary playground equipment will follow. The nursery school, due to intensive study of the problem by its loyal proponents, has gone far ahead of the kindergarten and primary grades in its thoughtful and scientific selection of materials and the direction of activities. There is much to be learned from a study of their program planning and record keeping. The following list of equipment mentions only some of the available materials which can do much to revolutionize playground activities or physical activities in an indoor play room.

Boat swing	Climb-a-round
Swing Bob (horizontal swinging plank)	Jungle Gym
Low slide	Tower Gym
Knotted rope (hung from tree or bar)	Whirl-a-round
Rope ladders	Horizontal bar
Stationary ladders	Parallel bars
Low springboards (bark pit)	Standard and bar (jumping)
Elevated boards (for walking)	Nets, balls, and racquets
Covered bedspring (for balance)	Targets
Hobbyhorses on wheels (made from sawhorses)	Putting greens and clubs
	Small croquet set
	Hoops and sticks

Last, but far from being least, in facing the problem of lack of progress in the game program is the necessity of introducing children to a variety of games not included in time-worn game lists.

When new ideas and adequate equipment are accepted as necessary steps for the promotion of the directed game period, there is good reason to expect an increase of interest on the part of teachers and a less passive attitude on the part of children who now "do not want to play."

Come, let's really play!

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION¹

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We all know that this is a time of transition. The children in schools today and next year and for several years to come will be the men and women of tomorrow. Their hands will participate in the shaping of the world of tomorrow. For this task we grant that they will need staunchness and ability to think independently through problems. They will need social consciousness—an appreciation of others. They will need to be free from fears and hatreds that would interfere with such an appreciation of others. For, as Michael Pupin has said, fears and hatreds lead only to strife among men and to war. They will need the ability to face reality—the reality of nature and of man, the reality of themselves, the reality of others. They will need the ability to communicate through reading, through writing, through speech.

As we know, these abilities and attitudes will not come suddenly to children on the threshold of adulthood. They will be strongly rooted only if they catch hold in early childhood. To help children acquire these attitudes and abilities will be a major concern of the teachers whom we educate.

TEN TENTATIVE TENETS

May I propose then as next tasks in the education of teachers of young children ten tentative tenets?

1. Teachers should be helped to have greater knowledge of child growth and development. Few programs of teacher training deal with children as human beings. W. Carson Ryan has just shown this in his book, *Mental Health Through Education*.² He makes a plea for "real teacher preparation based on human needs rather than on academic tradition."

How are we to help teachers acquire greater knowledge of child growth and development? . . . For one thing, in their student years, people who are to become teachers should engage in a great deal more actual work with children than they now do. They should have experience with children in many situations. Above all, they

¹ An address given at the Conference on Supervision and Direction of Instruction and of Child Welfare, Biltmore Hotel, Los Angeles, October 4, 1938.

² Ryan Carson, W., *Mental Health Through Education*. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1938.

should have a chance for more practice teaching than they ordinarily have at the present time. Furthermore, every student during her practice teaching should have opportunities in situations where she is not a readily dispensable accessory, but where she serves as a needed spoke in the wheel. She should be in a place where she has not only day by day contact with children, but also real responsibilities.

Also, to give the student greater knowledge of child growth and development there should be more training in observation and more opportunities to observe children in natural situations. Few teachers know how to observe. Alberta Munkres,¹ in a study made at Teachers' College, Columbia University, found that first-grade teachers, until they had been taught how to do accurate observing, failed to realize a great many characteristics of the children whom they were teaching. Observing is a trained skill rather than a natural gift. When once learned it serves as a useful tool toward fuller realizations concerning children's capacities, progress, and needs.

2. The teacher should have a deeper understanding of the emotions.

W. Carson Ryan, in the book already referred to, has placed great emphasis on this matter. So has Daniel Prescott in his book, *Emotions and the Educative Process*.² James Plant in *Personality and the Cultural Pattern*³ has stressed the child's need for a feeling of adequacy. He points out that the school must offer opportunities for the achievement of adequacy. Lawrence Frank in his article⁴ in the July, 1938, issue of *Mental Hygiene*, brings out the fact that the school should also give security to the child. How can the teacher in the school either give security or offer opportunities for adequacy unless she understands the factors on which both security and adequacy depend?

If the teacher is to contribute to genuine security and adequacy she must have insight into the backgrounds of individual children. She must think in terms of the guidance of each particular child. Toward a greater understanding of the emotions the student should acquire a thoroughgoing awareness of the dynamics of adjustment through experiences with personality studies of individual children, through case studies, through work with behavior problems, and the like.

¹ Alberta Munkres. *Personality Studies of Six-year-old Children in Classroom Situations*. Contributions to Education No. 681. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936.

² Daniel A. Prescott, *Emotions and the Educative Process*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.

³ James Plant, *Personality and the Cultural Pattern*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1937.

⁴ Lawrence K. Frank. "Fundamental Needs of the Child," *Mental Hygiene*, XXII (July, 1938), 353-379.

3. The teacher should gain insights and skills in working with parents. As Kurt Lewin has brought out, "the situation (or environment) is a part of the person." And parents comprise a large sector of the young child's environment. Their influence is strongly incorporated into his growing personality.

All of us know how helpful school-home coordination may be. All of us know the strength that comes when both school and home strive together for the good of the child. But in work with parents a new emphasis has come into the picture. The emphasis is on the parent himself. Those who work with parents need to think in terms of parents as persons. Much of the recent literature from the Child Study Association has brought this point under focus. In the October, 1938, issue of *Parents' Magazine*, Mrs. Littledale states the same idea forcefully in an editorial.¹ Any increased measure of security which a teacher can give to a parent as a person is also a measure of increased security for that parent's child.

Concerning the matter of teachers working with adults we have too long hidden our heads in the sand. We have dismissed the subject by saying, "Teachers cannot work with adults. This demands too much skill". . . . Does not any teaching, however, demand skill? Teaching children demands skill, yet we try to help students gain this skill in preparation for their work with children. Why not then also try to help teachers toward developing skills for work with adults? I, for one, believe teachers can learn to work with adults as well as with children. I believe if every teacher of young children were trained to work with parents as well as with children, a happier generation would grow up. Toward this end students should have experiences with parents in groups; they should have experiences with parents as individuals.

4. Students need to achieve realizations concerning the importance of interpersonal relationships—their role in teacher-child contacts, in teacher-parent contacts, in teacher to teacher contacts, and so on.

The core of these interpersonal relationships lies in the area of the emotions. How the teacher *feels* is tremendously important. A teacher's feelings concerning a child will influence the teacher's relationship to that child, no matter what the teacher's actions may be.

The field of modern psychiatric social work has much to offer to the field of education here. Many of the philosophies recently developed in psychiatric social work throw light on the matter of interpersonal relationships. I would suggest, therefore, that there be some exploration into this field from the angle of what it holds

¹ Clara Savage Littledale, "Our Children's Parents," *Parents' Magazine*, XIII (October, 1938), 13.

for the teacher—its application to her work with parents, and to the guidance of children.

5. The student in training needs to be given opportunities for greater understanding of self. To understand others, it is necessary to understand and accept ourselves. To control our actions, again it is necessary to understand ourselves. So many of us do things which are inexplicable in the light of our best judgment. A common phrase is, "I can't understand why I did it." We want teachers who *can* understand why they act as they do.

We speak of the necessity for the personality adjustment of teachers. But in our teacher education we do very little about the teacher herself. Students should have opportunities to become more cognizant of their own emotions. They should have opportunities to understand how their emotions influence what they do. They should have opportunities to work with a counselor on their own unique way of handling frustration and success, of resolving conflicts, of confronting reality, of withdrawing from life.

6. In their training period, teachers should gain a broad view of the educational scene. They should have chances to observe the best teaching practices and the worst. They should see progressive schools and unprogressive schools. There should be contacts with teaching at all levels. There should be guidance in evaluating what has been seen, so that from out of the breadth of the resulting view the student may glean not only broader but also deeper understandings.

7. Students should in their training period gain a wide knowledge of, and a comprehensive acquaintance with the social settings within which the school functions. They should gain insight into the significance of cultural impacts and their influences on personality. They should gain familiarity with community resources, with agencies for referral, and the like.

8. During their training teachers should be given a better grounding in skills for keeping up with research that bears on teaching methods, child development, and related areas. They should be helped to acquire skills, in addition, for keeping up with new materials and with challenging points of view as these appear.

9. There should be richness too for the student in the sort of backgrounds she achieves in the arts, in literature, and in the natural and social sciences. There is no reason why these backgrounds can not be alive, modern, and vital instead of static and tradition bound. Why should students come in contact with the poetry of Milton and not that of MacLeish; with the painting of Van Dyck and not that of Van Gogh; with the music of Verdi but not that of Gershwin? Cul-

tural backgrounds are not necessarily of the past, but of the past and the present combined.

The whole question of backgrounds brings us to the problem of the two years of college preceding the training period. During these years we expect students to have acquired a broad general cultural foundation. However, seeing what they do acquire, we often challenge whether it is either broad or cultural.

How shall the first two years of college be spent—building backgrounds only? Or should backgrounds and teacher education go hand in hand? These are questions to be raised, but not to be answered at the present moment.

10. The tenth and last point has bearing on all nine others. . . . We who train teachers need to put into wider use some of the newer methods of teaching. The students who experience these newer methods are better able in turn to put them into practice in their work with children. There should be much discussion instead of much lecture. Theory should be tied in with laboratory experiences which include both observation and participation. There should be little place for theory divorced from practice. In addition, the student who is in the process of learning to be a teacher should have opportunities for living creatively all the while that she is acquiring insights, skills, and understandings.

To conclude: The sort of teacher education which we have been talking about is composed fundamentally of three new R's: Richness, Realizations, Reality. Richness in backgrounds. Richness in breadth and depth of contacts with home, with school, with community. Realizations, or continuous discoveries, concerning children, concerning parents, concerning life, concerning oneself. Reality born of actual experiences—of actual contacts—especially contacts with the children who will be the men and women of tomorrow and who will have a hand in forming the pattern of tomorrow's world.

NEXT STEPS IN THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR LATER CHILDHOOD EDUCATION¹

CORINNE SEEDS, *Principal, University Elementary School, University of California at Los Angeles*

I am glad to be given the opportunity to say what I think are the next steps in the education of teachers who expect to work with children of eight, nine, ten, eleven, and twelve years. What I think should be done, naturally, depends upon my own philosophy of education and my experience in putting into practice that philosophy. The same would be true of everyone actively engaged in the profession of education. Therefore, at the beginning, it is understood that this may be one person's way of looking at the problem. The one thing in which educators in this specific field are in agreement, I am sure, is that the institutions for the preparation of teachers should reorganize their curricula to make possible a better education for teachers of pupils of these age levels.

In discussing this topic I shall try to do the following things:

1. Analyze to some extent the work of a teacher of these grades in order to discover her needs which are naturally determined by those needs and desires which she must help the children to discover and to satisfy.
2. Summarize from this analysis the most outstanding needs for which teacher training institutions should provide.
3. Suggest a tentative plan for making fuller provision for such experience.
4. Consider briefly some steps which should be taken by teacher-training institutions to help teachers to live fully and richly as human beings.

Perhaps this treatment of the topic will be more general than specific—because I think the next tasks in teacher education apply to teachers of all grade levels.

What do teachers need to know and be able to do to help children of these ages? To answer this question let us consider briefly the work of a good teacher of eleven-and twelve year-old children through one day. This teacher arrived at eight o'clock, an hour before school began. During that time she did the following things:

1. Attended to the arranging of the physical conditions of the room—such as the adjusting of shades and the regulating of heat in the room.

¹ An address given at the Conference on Supervision and Direction of Instruction and of Child Welfare, Biltmore Hotel, Los Angeles, October 4, 1938.

2. Helped Mary, the flower monitor, to solve a problem in flower arrangement which to Mary was very important.
3. Made a trip to the craftroom to secure additional tools for the construction period.
4. Checked materials to see whether everything needed by the children for construction was available.
5. Discussed with John and John's mother why he had been invited to join a rest-group for twenty minutes each day. John was rebellious and his mother was emotionally upset.
6. With the help of two boys, mounted and fastened to the wall the five paintings which had been judged as "keen" by the children the day before.
7. Went into the schoolyard to find out whether Derek, an English child new to the school, was making satisfactory social adjustments. She found Derek on a bench by himself, with the others engaged in a swift game of speed-ball. She found that he did not know the game, was afraid he would get his clothes soiled, and did not like the children because they imitated his English accent and called him "sister."

Nine o'clock came. The children dashed eagerly into the room. A child reported that Fred, who lived next door, had measles and could not come to school for several weeks. Discussion ensued as to the nature of measles and the precautions which were necessary in preventing an epidemic. Jesus and Mario, needing attention for impetigo, were quietly sent to the nurse.

As the major group interest was centered in a study of aeronautics several current happenings in that field were shared, as well as other important world events. The Douglas sit-down strike had interested the children immensely the day before. This interest was due to the fact that they had visited this plant in connection with their work. Several questions had been raised and left on the board for further consideration. They were:

1. What is the difference between the C.I.O. and the A.F.L.?
2. Why did the men in the Douglas plant strike?
3. Is it right for workers to "sit down" in Mr. Douglas' plant?

Discussion on the part of the children seemed to indicate a readiness to attempt to solve the problems. Suggestions were offered, implications elaborated, mimeographed material previously prepared by the teacher, pamphlets, and books were distributed and read. A few tentative conclusions were reached during group discussion. More questions were raised for solution on the following day.

Ten-fifteen o'clock brought the composer-accompanist. Tables were moved to the sides of the room. The children expressed rhythmic

ically four different ideas of propeller and then suggested several ways of weaving these together into a complete dance pattern. Several children accompanied with percussion instruments and practiced diligently to be exactly in time with the "propellers." Their idea of a propeller having been finished to their satisfaction, the group then suggested that it would also be fun to show rhythmically how the engine of the plane works, expressing the four strokes of the piston—intake, compression, power, and exhaust. Their efforts to express this idea revealed that they needed to know more about the operation of the engine of an airplane. The children accepted this as their problem which they thought could be solved by visiting an airplane factory where they could see an engine at work—and by reading pamphlets with good illustrations.

At eleven o'clock the children worked upon their gliders. Many of them completed theirs and went with the teacher to a hill nearby where they tried to launch and fly the gliders. Upon returning to the room each child, through a diagram on the board, described the performance of his glider. In this way each one was able to decide the reasons for good and poor performances, bringing into play considerable knowledge of the principles of flight.

Before dismissing the children for lunch the teacher asked Derek to return a tool to the craftroom, and then proceeded to help the other children to think through their problem and his, with the result that several boys gave him extra help in the play skills that he needed. The teacher privately suggested to Derek that he wear overalls at school, and soon he was one of the the one hundred per cent Americans, with both teacher and mother mourning over the fact that his beautiful accent was gradually disappearing.

Noon found the children eating lunch in an orderly manner and pursuing varied activities in their free time. Some played active games, some carried on dramatic play around an old log cabin, others built airplane models while a small group made plans for a nature-hike after school.

At one o'clock the children reviewed a problem in number which had arisen in their glider construction and had been solved during the arithmetic period the day before. Class drills in the skills required in handling decimals, and work in their arithmetic textbooks followed.

For fifteen minutes, words which had been misspelled in the written work were studied according to an approved method of learning spelling.

At two o'clock several groups of children met in the yard for intensive practice in speedball.

Two-thirty found them ready to listen with interest to the "Story of Man's First Flight," that of Daedalus and Icarus from the Island of Crete.¹ The rest of the day was spent by the children in the quiet reading of library books which would be shared later with the other members of the group. The teacher at this time gave remedial help to a small group of children who had difficulty in reading. Two of them had been nonreaders and five were simply slow in mastering reading techniques.

Shortly before school closed the teacher helped the children think through possible plans for their next day's work.

After school the teacher had plenty to do. She conferred with the nurse and several parents and drove to the airplane factory to arrange an excursion for the children. In the evening she searched for material which would help the children to solve their many problems, and made a large diagram of the working of a four-cycle engine.

The illustration given represents a typical day for the teacher in a good modern school.

THE MODERN TEACHER-PREPARATION AND BACKGROUND

Now, let us look more closely at what this teacher had to know and be able to do to help to satisfy the children's needs and desires during this one day. She had to possess the following abilities and skills:

1. Know what physical environment is conducive to the maintenance of good health, and be capable of stimulating interest in wholesome pursuits.
2. Have ability to plan flower arrangements appropriate for a children's workroom.
3. Know and provide the necessary tools and materials for construction.
4. Know and provide the necessary materials to help children in their search.
5. Know which children should rest and how to emphasize the value of rest and relaxation.
6. Know how to diagnose cases of social maladjustment.
7. Be able to help the children to sane viewpoints on communicable diseases.
8. Be able to determine very quickly cases needing treatment by doctor or nurse and to ascertain symptoms of undesirable health conditions.

¹ Jessie M. Tatlock, *Greek and Roman Mythology*. New York: Century Co., 1917, p. 233.

9. Know world affairs and be able to guide children in their discussion of those which are of vital interest to them.
10. Know how to handle the social-economic problems which arise.
11. Know which major areas of experience are most likely to lead children of each age level to grow to their highest capacities in knowing, feeling, and doing—and to gain the richest understanding and appreciation of the world in which they live.
12. Know how to help the children to find interest as individuals and as a group, in a large major area of experience, the content of which would help them to understand more fully how they are affected by activities of the people of the world.
13. Know how to prepare to guide children through a chosen area so that their outlooks, insights, appreciations, and techniques of doing will be widened and deepened.
14. Know how to guide children through a major area of experience so that they continually feel new needs and learn through the satisfaction of these needs.
15. Know how to prepare for children, materials to read which will help them to solve their problems at these age levels.
16. Know how to help the children share the thoughts and feelings which grow out of their common experiences through such forms of art expression as (a) rhythms, (b) painting, (c) modeling, (d) writing, (e) singing, (f) composing upon instruments.
17. Know how to construct what the children will make, know the use of tools and materials so that the children can be guided into satisfying construction experiences.
18. Know how to help the children to grow into socially fine human beings through guiding them as they dissolve the social conflicts which arise as they work and play together.
19. Know how to help children to gain in the best way adequate skills and techniques as they are needed.
20. Know what physical activities children enjoy and how to guide these.
21. Know how to help children gain deep appreciation for the stories and poems they find satisfying.

The analysis of this one day in a teacher's life shows clearly that to be a teacher in a modern school one must be a creative and versatile human being.

THE TASK OF THE TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTION

Teacher-training institutions can prepare teachers to meet such needs through integrated courses, taught in the way it is believed

people learn—where subject matter is acquired as it is needed by the learners who in this case are the teachers-to-be.

I believe some such scheme as the following could be used in these integrated courses:

Allow the prospective teachers to find out as far as possible for themselves what they will have to know and be able to do in order to teach creatively. This they will do through guided observations followed by discussions in which the needs they feel will be summarized and ways of satisfying these needs suggested and planned by them with the help of the instructor.

Prospective teachers will find that no longer is the school day made up of blocks of subject matter which the teacher thinks the children will find of use some day, but that subject matter is used to help the children to further their own on-going interests here and now.

They will find that group meetings where matters are discussed, contributions evaluated and shared, have taken the place of the recitation of their school days.

They will find that the teacher speaks only to stimulate thought and to enrich the children's contributions—that she is now a guide and not a dictator.

They will find the school schedule arranged by the children and the teacher to satisfy the demands of each day.

They will find the work children do prescribed largely by them in order to carry forward certain interests the children have and not prescribed by the teacher.

The prospective teachers will find that even the matter of control seems to be in the hands of the children—that the teacher does not tell them what to do but tries to help them find out what is right to do.

These methods of teaching will present decided contrasts in the minds of students for they were not taught in this way. They will wish to know how and why such changes have taken place. To answer these questions will require of them delving into the fields of educational theory, psychology, history, and philosophy. Instead of taking courses in those subjects, as prescribed work, they will acquire their content through satisfying needs felt and recognized by them.

From these observations they will find that much of the work the children do seems to center about certain large areas of experience. They will wish to know:

Why this is done.

How these areas are selected.

Which ones are best for each age level.

How these get under way.

How they are guided so that the satisfaction of each need gives rise to ever new needs.

How to prepare themselves to guide children through one of these major areas.

After the students have found out why it is thought desirable to devote large portions of time to wide areas of social living and have canvassed possible major areas of experience for the intermediate grades the instructor will help them to choose a very rich one, through which she will guide them as a group. In this way they will "learn by doing" how to plan and prepare to guide children in the satisfying of one of their major interests in social living. Plans will be made for the gaining and recording of experiential background. The whole field having been studied, the group will then decide upon the experiences in which children of a certain age level might be interested. An anticipatory sequence will be made and materials collected and arranged in the order of the sequence.

In successfully carrying on an enterprise of this sort the instructor who is guiding the group needs the cooperation of many subject matter experts—in industrial and fine art, geography, history, anthropology, science, economics, literature, dancing, music, and many others. The students should be able to draw upon the resources of the university, the city, the nation, and the world in order to satisfy in the finest way their needs and desires as they arise. In this way, through doing, the prospective teacher would learn what it means to acquire the social heritage through satisfying needs that are really intrinsic. Until teachers college faculties learn to work together for the furthering of the students' interests we shall not go far in helping our teachers-to-be to find a way of meeting the needs of children in the modern school.

In working through one large area of experience with all of its possible ramifications into creative art expression and related subject matter fields, students will feel the need of more courses in composition, in poetry, in painting, in creating musical compositions, in dancing, in economics, in geography, and others. The content of their courses would take on added interest as they would then see them as means to ends which they themselves have in mind—and not merely more courses to satisfy requirements of which they have not felt the need.

In visiting the new school, students would find that many other interests besides the large major ones were being stimulated and fostered—interests in wholesome physical activity, health, nature

study, literature, art, music, and many others. Seeing what they as teachers would be expected to do, to stimulate and keep these interests alive and growing, would provide greater enthusiasm for all courses for which they see a need.

Through guided participation, observation, and supervised teaching the techniques needed in guiding the social living of children of these ages can be acquired.

To become the kind of teacher needed in the new education demands much more than university courses—even if these courses are highly integrated.

I believe we have in the past done too much thinking about preparing the teacher to meet the needs of the children, and not enough about helping the teacher herself to become a well-rounded, well-balanced person who can carry on such a program.

A great many young teachers-to-be are seriously handicapped at the start. We want them to be fine, upstanding human beings who are interested not only in knowing what it means to live the good life, but to learn to live it by participating in it.

In the syllabus for one of the courses in education at Teachers College, Columbia University, the instructors decided that for anyone to live the good life richly and fully the following needs must be met:

1. A favorable heredity.
2. Sound emotional and mental adjustments.
3. Sound physical health.
4. Economic security and comfort.
5. Opportunity to succeed.
6. Social approval.
7. Aesthetic interests.
8. Experience in love and tenderness.
9. Adventure—new experiences.
10. Experience in sharing the social arrangements that affect one.
11. Stable loyalties—objects of allegiance.

I wonder what the teacher-training institutions are doing to help student-teachers to meet these needs and live the good life.

It seems that young people need something more than we are providing for them. The experiences that they have are not deep and rich. Therefore many of them are not vital, enthusiastic persons. Could we accomplish anything with a plan such as the following?

All students who seem to be good potential teaching material could, during their last year at University, be housed in "student houses"—about twelve students to each house.

Each house would be in charge of two persons, one a house-mother, a cultured and refined woman well versed in the social graces—the other an educational leader whose business it would be to help guide the individual and group pursuits of the members of the house.

The members of each house would be chosen with reference to the widening of the interests of the whole group. For example, students of different religious faiths, different social backgrounds, and different teaching interests would be placed together. A part of the plan would be the continual sharing of individual and group interests. Each person would be assisted in finding a worth-while interest in sports, in swimming, tennis, badminton, golf, or any one of a number of physical activities; in some aesthetic pursuit; in dancing, painting, weaving, photography, pottery, modeling, writing.

The social and educational leaders could observe physical and emotional handicaps and help the students to overcome them.

Group enterprises in entertaining, in taking excursions and expressing through some art medium the impressions gained with the sharing of these thrilling adventures, the meeting of worth-while persons, and many other experiences are all possible in a situation of this kind.

The advantages of such a scheme are many—but principally they are that all students would have such opportunities as the following:

1. Adequate food, clothing, and living conditions.
2. Opportunity to develop good physical habits, social poise, and emotional stability.
3. Opportunity to sever too close ties with the home.
4. Guidance in developing worth-while aesthetic and intellectual interests.
5. Actual practice in democratic living.
6. Under guidance, the opportunity to live richly and fully, acquiring the habit of enjoying the worth-while things of the world.

I believe the state could well afford to subsidize such a venture as this. Surely the subsidizing of the welfare of teachers who are most responsible for the kind of citizens we produce for the future and the kind of society the nation builds is as important as the promotion of national and international trade through subsidizing of railroad and steamship lines. Perhaps a monetary return should be required from the teachers when they actually receive a salary. I should like to see what difference such a way-of-living on the part of teachers would make, not only in the lives of the teachers themselves, but

in the happiness and education of the children. To be sure the teachers must be prepared to teach the children in the classrooms—but at the same time can it not be done more effectively by beginning with the teacher herself—by arranging an environment in which she can live to her highest capacity physically, mentally, socially, and emotionally?

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EDITORIAL COMMENT AND NEWS NOTES

OBSERVATION MEETING AT THOMAS STARR KING JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

A meeting of unusual interest of the California School Supervisors Association, Southern Section, was held at Thomas Starr King Junior High School, Los Angeles, on October 31, 1938. Miss Mardele Robinson of South Pasadena, Chairman of the Committee on Education for Early Adolescence, of the association arranged for the meeting. The supervisors in attendance had the opportunity to visit classes for two hours in the morning. Observation preceded a discussion which followed the Guide for Observation and Discussion prepared by Miss Robinson as shown below:

GUIDE TO OBSERVATION AND DISCUSSION

1. In the experiences you are observing, what evidence do you see of definite planning to meet the basic physiological needs of children?
 - A. Is there sufficient large muscle activity?
 - B. Are the types of activity sufficiently varied and vivid to relieve emotional tensions?
2. What evidence is there of definite planning to meet the basic social needs of the child? What evidence of deliberate attempts on part of teachers?
 - A. To make pupil feel secure because he knows he is regarded with respect and affection by his teacher and classmates.
 - B. To give him security because he feels he belongs to and is important to the group.
 - C. To bring into the group a pupil who might otherwise be isolated because of certain unfortunate characteristics.
 - D. To provide an environment that makes possible and desirable both cooperation and sharing.
3. What evidence is there of definite planning to meet the need of each individual to achieve a sense of worthy selfhood, that is:
 - A. What evidence of children having an opportunity to think analytically, about problems of intimate concern to them?
 - B. What evidence of opportunities to practice old and to learn new tools to use for arriving at and expressing the generalization which results from the organization of experience? In brief, the learning and practice of skills in answer to a felt need?
 - C. What examples of efforts to lead children to greater self-dependency?

4. What illustrations of the use of aesthetic experiences, art, music, and the like, as a means
 - A. Of helping children understand and appreciate a different cultural group or epoch, such as the poetry of the Chinese or the architecture of the ancient Greeks?
 - B. Of achieving "an essential personality unity by stating through music, dancing, the drama, or the representative arts that which one cannot put clearly in words but which one feels vividly and honestly?"¹

Following a brief presentation of the basic philosophy of the school by the principal Dr. Alice Ball Struthers, a panel discussion was held under the chairmanship of Miss Helen Heffernan, Chief, Division of Elementary Education. Among those who participated in the discussion were Miss Isabel Conner, Long Beach; Mrs. Fannie Shaftel, and H. N. Haworth of Pasadena; George Lunt, Miss Elsie Patterson, and Miss Isabel Gilbert of Riverside County; Miss Grace Adams and Bernard J. Lonsdale of Los Angeles County; Miss Edith Redit of San Diego State College; Miss Katherine Carey of Los Angeles; Mrs. Eva Rademacher, Roger Walton, and Miss Barbara Borden of Imperial County; Mrs. Ruth Reed of San Bernardino County; Mrs. Fannie Shaftel of Pasadena and Mr. Maurice R. Stokesbary of Alhambra; and Miss Mardele Robinson of South Pasadena. The discussion continued throughout the luncheon, which was arranged and served by the homemaking department of the school.

The Guide to Observation and Discussion served as the basis of such profitable discussion that principals and supervisors may wish to have it available for use with teacher groups.

NEW PUBLICATIONS ISSUED BY THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION

In a new bulletin, *Nature and Use of the Cumulative Record*, the author, Dr. David Segel, Specialist in Tests and Measurements in the Office of Education, describes types of cumulative records found in different school systems throughout the nation and outlines the purposes for which such records may be employed. To quote from the bulletin, "the greatest aid to a pupil can be given only when his rate and trend of development in various intellectual, social and physical traits is known." Principals working on the problem of cumulative records will find this material from the office of education helpful.

Many educators are familiar with the publication entitled *Public Affairs Pamphlets. An Index to Inexpensive Pamphlets on*

¹Daniel H. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.

Social, Economic, Political and International Affairs, was issued some time ago by the Office of Education. A supplement is now available which brings this useful index up to date.

Curriculum Laboratories and Division contains information supplied by state departments of education, colleges and universities, and city school systems relative to the work of curriculum development which is under way throughout the nation.

These publications may be secured for ten cents from United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Washington.

TEN OUTSTANDING BOOKS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

In a recent issue of *New York State Public Education Bulletin*, Dr. Cecilia U. Stuart, Chief of Division of Elementary Education, calls to the attention of principals the ten most outstanding professional books for elementary teachers published since 1934, as established by country-wide research by the American Association of School Administrators. The list will be interesting to principals in California:

BETTS, EMMETT A. *The Prevention and Correction of Reading Difficulties*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1936.

Teachers Guide to Child Development in the Intermediate Grades. California Curriculum Commission. Sacramento: State Department of Education, 1936.

CASWELL, HOLLIS L., and CAMPBELL, DOAK S. *Curriculum Development*. New York: American Book Company, 1935.

The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy. Educational Policies Commission. Washington: National Education Association of the United States and the National Association of School Administrators, 1937.

HARRISON, M. LUCILE. *Reading Readiness*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1936.

HILDRETH, GERTRUDE. *Learning the Three R's; A Modern Interpretation*. Minneapolis: Educational Publishers, 1936.

MCGAUGHY, JAMES R. *An Evaluation of the Elementary School*. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1937.

The Teaching of Reading: A Second Report. Thirty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1937.

NORTON, JOHN K., and NORTON, MARGARET A. *Foundations of Curriculum Building*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936.

TIPPETT, JAMES S. *Schools for a Growing Democracy*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936.

RURAL EDUCATION CONFERENCE

The staff of the Training School at San Diego State College working under the direction of Dr. Richard Barbour, General Chairman, sponsored the second annual conference on rural education for the five southern California counties on November 5, 1938.

The meeting was held in the little theater at the college and was well attended by teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents from Imperial, San Diego, Riverside, San Bernardino, and Los Angeles counties.

The program consisted of a presentation and discussion centering about the organization of learning experiences in small rural schools by Mrs. Gladys Potter, Assistant Chief, Division of Elementary Education, State Department of Education; a presentation and demonstration of choric verse in a rural school by Nathan J. Naiman and the children of the Orange Glen School, San Diego County; a presentation on the effectiveness of special programs in interpreting the school to the community by Dorothea M. Hoffman, teacher of the Santee School, San Diego County.

The luncheon was followed by greetings from Dr. Aurelia Reinhardt, President of Mills College; and an address by Helen Heffernan, Chief, Division of Elementary Education, State Department of Education, on the professional growth of the rural teacher.

Dr. Barbour and his staff in the Elementary Training School at San Diego State College are to be congratulated on the good feeling and professional stimulation which has resulted from the two conferences held in the interest of rural education. The extensive rural area surrounding the college makes it certain that a percentage of graduates will find their way into rural schools. The specific problems met in rural situations by teachers, supervisors, and administrators can be more effectively handled if the training institutions and the actual practice in the classroom are brought closer together. The rural education conference at San Diego is one way in which better cooperation can be brought about.

FOUR HUNDRED TEACHERS ATTEND CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION OF FOREIGN CHILDREN IN PASADENA

The third annual conference of teachers of children from homes in which some language other than English is spoken attracted more than four hundred teachers to a meeting held in Pasadena on December 3, 1938. The State Department of Education in cooperation with the California School Supervisors Association, Southern Section, sponsored the meeting.

Dr. John A. Sexson, Superintendent of Schools of Pasadena, arranged to have four schools in the school system which are attended principally by children from foreign homes available for visiting from nine until eleven o'clock on Saturday morning. The work was not in the nature of a demonstration but afforded opportunity for

visiting teachers to become acquainted with the types of experience which Pasadena schools provide for these children. The attention of teachers was particularly directed toward room arrangements, instructional materials provided, the music and art programs, and health and recreational services.

Among the schools participating was Garfield School, a downtown school with a mixed population of white, Negro, Mexican, and Oriental children. Thirteen classrooms from kindergarten through grade six were available for visiting. The Fremont School serving an entirely Mexican population had five classrooms which were of particular interest to teachers in rural schools. The Cleveland School which serves a residential district enrolls white, Negro, Mexican, and some Oriental children. Eight classrooms were open to visitors at the Cleveland School. The Lincoln School serving a similar population had nineteen classes available for observation, including a special class and a remedial reading group.

The program from eleven to twelve o'clock consisted of four workshop sessions. A demonstration of creative music activities together with an exhibit of rhythmic instruments and creative music was conducted by Mrs. Lillian Mohr Fox. A demonstration on how to develop creative abilities of children in the use of water colors and crayons was conducted by Miss Fannie Kerns, Supervisor of Art, and her associate, Miss L. Elston Glenn. The room where the art workshop was carried on was beautifully decorated with various Christmas ideas. A demonstration on elementary industrial arts was set up to show tools, woods, materials, and models which are used in the industrial arts program. The industrial arts workshop was conducted by Miss Vivian Borgman, Supervisor of Industrial Arts. In the museum rooms there was a very interesting exhibit of materials used in connection with a transportation unit, materials for elementary science, and other visual aids related to the elementary school program. This exhibit was under the direction of Mr. Courtney Monsen.

A particularly well attended and interesting conference was held in the conference room of the Vista del Arroyo Hotel under the direction of Dr. Margaret Bennett, Director of Guidance. She was ably assisted in a symposium by the principals of the schools and the staff of the guidance department.

A luncheon session was welcomed by Dr. George Merideth, Assistant Superintendent of Schools. During the subsequent program, members of the instructional staff of the Pasadena City Schools were called upon to make brief statements of various phases of the program.

Mrs. Katherine Murray, General Supervisor, San Bernardino County, has served as Chairman of a Committee on the Education of Children from Foreign Language Homes for the association during the past two years. Mrs. Murray spoke briefly on the work of this committee during the luncheon session.

The immediate plans for the conference were under the direction of Mrs. Fannie Shaftel, Director of Curriculum, Pasadena, and Mrs. Gladys L. Potter, Assistant Chief, Division of Elementary Education.

The teachers in attendance voted to continue the plan of annual conferences for this group. The Pasadena conference was rich in practical values for classroom teachers and closed with many expressions of appreciation for the spirit of professional service on the part of the Pasadena teachers, principals, and supervisors who had shared so liberally with the visitors their program for the education of the foreign children.

DEMONSTRATION ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AT UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY

Dr. John A. Hockett, Director of the University of California Demonstration Elementary School, has announced that the following teachers have accepted assignments for the summer session of 1939:

- MARY C. EVANS, Montecito Union School, Santa Barbara County
- ETHEL A. AHLPORT, Elementary School, Palos Verdes Estates, Los Angeles County
- EDNA M. EVENSON, Principal, Tarzana School, Los Angeles
- MRS. MARGARET S. SMITH, Sawtelle Boulevard School, Los Angeles
- MRS. BEATRICE TALLEY, Washington School, Pasadena
- LORRAINE WICKSTROM, Heaton School, Fresno
- EVELYN KIDWELL, Curriculum Field Assistant, Los Angeles County Schools
- MRS. LYDIA SHEEHAN, Crescent Mills School, Plumas County

This is the third year of the cooperative enterprise between the University of California at Berkeley and the Division of Elementary Education of the California State Department of Education, in which a demonstration elementary school is maintained throughout the summer. Helen Heffernan, Chief, Division of Elementary Education, serves as Assistant Director of the Demonstration Elementary School, and Mrs. Gladys L. Potter, Assistant Chief, Division of Elementary Education, serves as Principal of the University of California Demonstration Elementary School.

EDUCATION AS AN AID TO ACCIDENT PREVENTION

The American National Red Cross is sponsoring a program of home and farm accident prevention in an effort to save thousands of lives and millions of dollars annually, now lost through injuries.

In approaching the problem the American Red Cross offers printed material (A.R.C. 1027) suitable for group discussion in schools, universities, women's clubs, parent teacher associations, the Grange, farm bureaus, home demonstration clubs, 4-H clubs, Future Farmers of America, and civic fraternal groups dealing with the magnitude of the problem and means of accident prevention.

The need for establishing positive habits in children rather than giving negative warnings is emphasized throughout the material. To close the wide gap between knowing and doing, many suggestions are made relative to the ways and means of stimulating individual and community action in the removal of hazards. Copies of The Red Cross Self-Check List for Common Hazards (Form A.R.C. 1479), which is an important part of the program, are available for distribution and offer a concrete means of calling attention to home and farm hazards that can and should be removed. This checklist is accompanied by a booklet written especially for teachers on Accident Causes and How They May Be Prevented (A.R.C. 1023).

The printed material may be ordered by number from any local Red Cross Chapter or from the Pacific Branch Office, American National Red Cross, Civic Auditorium, San Francisco.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON MODERN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association and the University of California are collaborating in holding the Third Annual Conference on elementary education in Berkeley from July 8 to July 21, 1939. This conference is to be organized into a summer session course in education with the title "Problems of the Modern Elementary School." In the course will be treated the function, work, and objectives of the modern elementary school with emphasis upon the principal's responsibility in dealing with the problems involved. Since the third annual conference will probably be the last one held in the West for some time to come, California elementary school principals should take advantage of the opportunity thus afforded them.

The program of the conference includes (1) directed observation in the demonstration elementary school (2) a series of lectures by a specially selected staff and (3) a number of special discussion sections.

Each day from 9:00 to 11:00 a.m. a carefully chosen staff of teachers will be observed conducting classwork in which sound methods of teaching are used. In the demonstration school, classes are offered in all grades from the first through the eighth.

General assemblies will occur from 11:00 a.m. to 12 M. Each session will be addressed by a specialist on some phase of modern elementary education. The subjects and speakers are as follows:

Status of Elementary Education in the United States, Willard E. Givens, Executive Secretary, National Education Association

Philosophical Foundations of the Modern Elementary School, Rudolph D. Lindquist, Director of the Cranbrook School, Michigan, and former Director of the Laboratory Schools, Ohio State University

Implications of Modern Psychology for Elementary Education, Reginald Bell, Associate Professor of Education, Stanford University

Social Responsibilities of the Elementary School, Paul Hanna, Professor of Education, Stanford University

Helping the Teacher Plan a Curriculum Unit. John A. Hockett, Assistant Professor of Education, Associate Director of Practice Teaching and Director of Summer Demonstration School, University of California

Elementary School Experiences Involving Self Control. George C. Kyte, Professor of Education and Supervising Principal of the University Elementary School, University of California

Reinterpreting the Three R's, Helen Heffernan, Chief, Division of Elementary Education, California State Department of Education

Extension of Experience through Books, Julia L. Hahn, Division Supervising Principal, Public Schools, Washington, D. C., and Adjunct Professor of Education, George Washington University

The Principal at Work in a Modern School, Gladys L. Potter, Assistant Chief, Division of Elementary Education, California State Department of Education.

Summary of Conference, George C. Kyte.

From 1:00 to 2:30 p.m. the special discussion sections will be held. The number of discussion and study groups will depend upon the number and needs of the students enrolled. Provision has been made for seven sections; others to be added as needs are determined. The problems for these sections have been chosen to cover important aspects of the conference theme. The sections planned, together with their leaders, are as follows:

Section I. How can creative expression be stimulated in pupils and teachers? Helen Heffernan.

Section II. How should community resources be utilized in the teaching program? Gladys L. Potter.

Section III. How may we evaluate teaching? John A. Hockett

Section IV. What are the characteristics of a modern elementary school? Graham C. Loofbourow, Principal, John Muir Elementary School, Fresno, California

- Section V. What should we know about elementary school children?
George D. Stoddard, Dean of the Graduate College, Director
of Child Welfare Research Station and Research Professor of
Psychology, University of Iowa
- Section VI. How can the elementary school function as an accountant to
society? Rudolph D. Lindquist
- Section VII. How can the teaching principal improve classroom teaching?
George C. Kyte

After 2:30 p.m. provision will be made for professional and cultural excursions, special lectures, exhibits, and other sources of instruction and entertainment.

Registration Fee and Credit. Registration will take place Saturday morning, July 8. The tuition fee for registration in this course only is \$15.00. Students completing the course for credit will be allowed three semester hours of credit.

Housing Accommodations. In order to obtain housing accommodations close to the campus, persons enrolling for the conference are urged to make reservations early.

George C. Kyte, Professor of Education, University of California, has been appointed director of the conference. The plans have been arranged with the cooperation of Miss Eva G. Pinkston, Executive Secretary of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, Miss Sarah L. Young, Principal, Parker School, Oakland, California, and representative of the National Department of Elementary School Principals, Miss Helen Heffernan, Chief, Division of Elementary Education, California State Department of Education, and Dr. John A. Hockett, Assistant Professor of Education, University of California, Berkeley.

STATE-WIDE CONFERENCE OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS, APRIL 2-5, HOTEL OAKLAND

A conference of all California elementary school principals and district superintendents is called by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to be held in Oakland, April 2 to 5, in conjunction with the annual Council Meeting of the California Elementary School Principals' Association.

An outstanding program of general and sectional meetings dealing with the supervisory and administrative responsibilities of the principals has been arranged. A letter of invitation, copies of the tentative program and further details of the conference will be sent to principals and district superintendents.

SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS FOR THE ORGANIZATION OF INSTRUCTION IN EMERGENCY SCHOOLS¹

GLADYS L. POTTER, *Assistant Chief, Division of Elementary Education,
California State Department of Education*

The philosophy behind any program of education for the children of seasonal workers is no different from that for any group of children. The modern school is attempting to carry out a curriculum with all groups of children which will help them to take their best possible part in life. The major responsibility of the teacher in any school is to help children to live here and now fully and with deep satisfactions.

Right human living has been called "the good life." How can the schools help the children of the thousands of homeless migrants that harvest the crops in California to live "the good life" in spite of the many devastating conditions with which their life is filled? How can schools help each child to live his daily life better than it would be possible for him without the opportunity of school education?

There is a curious attitude toward these people upon whom California depends to harvest its crops. This attitude extends to the children of these people who crowd our schools in different places in different seasons. Probably the greatest single factor in the lives of these people is the feeling that they are never received into a community nor into the life of the community. They are never allowed to feel at home in the communities which demand their services. The reasons for this attitude need not be elaborated here. You are all aware of the reasons. It seems not to change the attitude of the local residents that many of the reasons for the existing feeling is entirely beyond the control of the persons concerned, and certainly entirely out of the hands of the children whom the schools serve.

For many years the seasonal workers were from foreign lands. The feeling of indifference toward the education of the children of these foreigners was mainly due to the fact that they were foreigners and so not welcome in our land. Certain it is that the character of the seasonal workers has changed. There are still many foreigners in this group, but many places have been taken by American-born men and women. But the American-born workers and their children suffer from the old attitudes that were exhibited toward the Japanese and Mexican who used to form the major portion of the agricultural workers in California.

¹ An address presented at the Conference on Education of Children of Seasonal Workers held at Fresno State College, December 10, 1938.

The new group among our seasonal workers are small farmers who have lost their farms, or they are farm hands who lived with farm families in the "old American way." Many are men who have worked hard on their own farms and have felt the pride of possessing and living in close touch with the land.

As one writer said, "They are resourceful and intelligent Americans who have gone through the hell of the drouth, have seen their lands wither and die and the top soil blow away; and this, to a man who has owned his land, is a curious and terrible pain."¹

These men are not migrants by nature. They are wanderers from force of circumstances. Here in California where they have come to live by the crops and give their children a chance to get an education, they find themselves without a vote in a democratic society. The "Munns, Holbrooks, Hansens and Schmidts" find themselves the underprivileged class, with starvation trailing them.

It is inevitable that the fears, the emotional insecurity, the hunger, and the feeling of being ostracized have influenced the children of these families, and of the families of the Mexicans and other foreign groups that come into the public schools.

How can the program in our schools help these children to a feeling of belonging? How can it best meet their many needs as they wander in and out of the overcrowded schools of the state?

Teachers who face the problem have a right to specific suggestions about the activities which should go on in your schoolroom.

We have had outlined for us the misery and squalor, the cold, the insecurity, the disease, and the discouragement which cloud the home life of children whose parents follow the crops. Our concern for these factors is great. Every teacher must not only be cognizant of the camp life of the people but must do all in his power to bring about a change in the deplorable conditions he knows to exist. In the meantime, children from these families come to the public schools seeking an education.

One of the premises of public education is that the school shall supplement the home. If this statement is taken literally—and why should it not be—what can the school do to supplement the inadequate homes of the children of seasonal workers?

First, the school to which these children come should be a clean and orderly place in which they spend five or six hours of the day. There should be a lack of tension and restraint. These children must feel wanted and necessary in all of their school experience. The building may be inadequate and cheaply built or an improvised

¹ John Steinbeck, *Their Blood is Strong*. 25 California Street, San Francisco: Simon J. Lubin Society of California, Inc., 1938, p. 3.

structure provided for the few months or weeks in which these children are with you, but there can be no excuse for dirt or lack of order in the classroom. A teacher who tolerates any other condition acknowledges that she has standards lower than those acceptable in America.

In the hands of the teacher, too, is the important factor of the atmosphere of the classroom. Many of these children, most of them, are subjected to feelings of fear, insecurity, and tension during all of the hours of the day and night. Surely the few hours spent in the shelter of the great American institution, the public school, should afford them security, confidence, and a feeling of being wanted.

The temper of the school is probably set on the first day that the child appears. Frequently this child or some one in his family may have been in school last year during this same season. Welcome him back. Make him feel that you were expecting him and are glad to see him again. If he is a stranger your responsibility is even greater. The room may be already filled to overflowing but that is not the fault of the child. Through no decision or desire of his has he come to an overcrowded school. The teacher has no right to take out on the latest arrival her distress concerning a room too full of children. This is *his* school and he has as much right to consideration as the early comers. One of the ways in which tension can be relieved in classrooms for these children is to have each room in the building take on some of the desirable characteristics of a one-teacher school. There should be no feeling of strict grade lines in a school serving the needs of children of seasonal workers. Miss Smith's room and Miss Brown's room should be the accepted way of designating classrooms rather than third grade or fourth grade. The child himself will feel more at home in a group of his own size and age, and he belongs where he will fit best socially. Each room above the third grade should have the variety of material that is commonly found in an ungraded school: easy books, books of average difficulty, and difficult books on the book shelves. Arithmetic and spelling material should be handled in the same way. A roll of wrapping paper, paint, clay, and a few simple tools should be available in every classroom. Find out the place at which the children are and begin there with whatever work is attempted.

Large curriculum units chosen as the center of interest in these "ungraded" classrooms, work admirably for the welfare of the children enrolled and can be handled by the teacher efficiently in spite of the variety of abilities and backgrounds of the group.

Such units as clothing, shelter, food, or community life offer innumerable possibilities. Such units are close to the lives of these

children, associated with things within their experience, and will help them to do better the things which they are going to do anyway, which is one of the precepts of education.

If boxes of material relating to a half dozen or more suitable curriculum units were available from the county library, or the county superintendent's office for these emergency schools it would be helpful. Books, pictures, costumes, models, addresses of sources of information, and suggestions about activities may all be put into this "Treasure Chest" and sent to the school immediately so that none of the precious time of the migrant children will be wasted after they enroll in school.

Science is a field with unlimited opportunities for use in the school that welcomes the child who is here today and gone tomorrow. His life is close to nature. His life is full of firsthand experiences with nature's creatures and its beauties and its cruelties.

To know the names, habits, characteristics and songs of birds; the names of trees, of flowers; the kinds of butterflies; the life cycle of toads and frogs, and bees; some of the familiar constellations; the importance of conservation and the ways in which each individual is responsible for the wise use of natural resources are all science interests that will be meaningful and functional and make life more interesting for these children who live so much in the out-of-doors.

Dramatic play offers a splendid opportunity for development of these children. The term "dramatic play" is not too well understood, but by it I mean free play in a childlike situation, as opposed to saying lines that have been learned, or following definite directions from a teacher. Play is supposed to be "touched with evil" and a thing taboo. But what is a more natural expression for children than to play? It is through play that children learn. When left to their own devices they play house, play school, play that they are animals or aviators. A group of primary children are expressing themselves naturally when they play they are people in a community center. The conversation at the station where they go for gasoline, at the bakery where they may purchase bread, the way in which these "people" go from store to store, their courtesy, type of speech, ideas of what is socially acceptable, all give the watchful teacher an opportunity to study the needs of her group. What should the teacher do during dramatic play time? Too often she is conducting another class rather than moving about from group to group, and from individual to individual, watching her children work and play together, watching for social attitudes, democratic ideals. It is my suggestion that dramatic play among younger or older children is important enough so that the teacher should plan to have the other children

in the room not engaged either watch the play or be busy with some activity which does not require the close supervision of the teacher. During dramatic play is the time when the teacher has the finest opportunity to study the children.

One of the dire needs of these children is an opportunity for creative expression. A chance to express themselves through some medium or a variety of media. It does not mean just the product of clay and canvas; it means expression through dance, laughter, through talking and writing one's thoughts and feelings; it means a flash of mind—these are all creative expression because they are undirected and have come from an inner urge. This does not mean that the teacher should let nature take its course. Nature is wonderful, but Hughes Mearns calls her a "lusty, sly wench" too. The teacher must point the way in the field of creative expression rather than tell the children what to say. She must nourish growth in taste and discrimination. The skillful teacher knows that patterns make a uniform result that is undesirable. Even with the meager background of these children, they have originality and a contribution to make in the field of creative expression if we but give them a chance.

"Creative expression is like the heart beat; no one has found the source of its power, but no one doubts that the source is within us. The creative spirit is another heart; it will keep us alive if we give it a chance to beat for us; it may be stilled, but then there is no more life."¹

In creative expression the urge to do is self-engendered and seeks its own way of fulfillment. It is not stopped by time or space or apparatus or equipment. This is the very food of education and offers not only a desirable release and happiness for these children, but an avocation and the beginnings of a vocation.

The inability to read puts a child older than six years at a disadvantage at once when he enters school. That is almost the first thing a teacher says to you about a child in a school, "he can't read." Our schools are probably still "reading schools" when that thing can happen. Can he speak well? does he handle the mother tongue easily and with assurance? is he socially well adjusted? is he emotionally stable? are much more important concerns.

Speech should be placed ahead of reading in our concern over the lacks in these children. This is particularly true for a group from homes where a foreign language is spoken, but holds also for the English-speaking group. If we can give these children something to talk about, a reason for talking about it in a program with speech as a major objective not reading, we will not only meet their needs

¹Hughes Mearns, "The Creative Spirit and Its Significance for Education," *Creative Expression*. Edited by Gertrude Hartman and Ann Shumaker. New York: John Day Company, 1931, p. 8.

more adequately but we will save many children from the devastating failure they experience when they attempt to read the printed symbols before the words they read are a part of their speech.

Reading experiences for many children of foreign parentage will be extremely limited. The sound pictures and the radio have made it less necessary for the American public to read than ever before. It is not my feeling that we should deplore this development but rather capitalize upon it and develop listening as a skill just as reading is a skill.

Ample opportunity to read easy, interesting material that will help the child to grow in power and in love of reading should be our goal. A big boy of fourteen reading about bunnies, babies, and bears shows that the teacher has seen only the material, not the boy and his relation to the material. Simply written books with adult concepts must be the reading material purchased for these children. Picture books are enjoyed by adults and are enjoyed much more by children. These should be available to children of every grade.

Many lists of books for retarded readers have been published and should be consulted by the teacher who is unfamiliar with suitable material for older children with reading difficulties. Many of these children are retarded not because they have not ample ability to learn to read but because they have not had an opportunity to get hold of books to read or sufficient guidance in mastering the mechanics of reading.

To answer some of our questions let us consider briefly the work of a good teacher in a school with three classrooms, attempting to meet the needs of forty children from the homes of seasonal workers.

The building is an old wooden structure to which rooms have been added as the numbers have increased. The walls are not plastered. The room is heated with a stove. The old type of desks and seats have been put on skids so that they can be pushed about to make floor space available when needed. A long, low table stands at one side of the room, flanked with homemade chairs.

The teacher of the older group of children arrived at eight o'clock, an hour before school begins. During that first hour she did the following things:

She built a fire in the stove and put on a large pail of water to heat. She adjusted the shades at the windows and arranged the seats in the way which would best suit the activities which she planned for the morning.

Four children appeared to help her. Two children covered the table of rough boards with wrapping paper to make it fresh and clean. The teacher helped Betty arrange a bouquet of grasses in a bowl

with a bright colored disk behind it on top of the bookcase made of packing boxes.

The teacher mixed calcimine paints in mayonnaise jars and placed them ready to use beside improvised easels leaning against the blackboard.

Next she put four new books on the table, also a half dozen magazines brought from home. With the help of the children, she slipped a new print behind the tag-board frame pinned to the bulletin board, and placed colored pictures from magazines on a screen in one corner of the room.

At this point six new children came in. She welcomed them and introduced them to the children who were helping her. She suggested that they look about the room. She asked Betty to show them where the cloakroom and the lavatories were. She noted that two of the children had no lunch with them. She showed the children where they were to sit.

A few minutes before nine o'clock the pail of hot water was put on a bench outside the door. Tin wash basins and bars of soap were placed beside the pail. A pile of paper towels and a box in which to dispose of them were placed conveniently. A mirror hung at a convenient level. A piece of gingham with forty labeled pockets contained combs for each one.

Nine o'clock came. Some of the children stopped to wash in the welcome warm water. Some waited their turn. The teacher stood at the door and greeted each child.

Forty-three children were at length gathered into the room. The teacher took time to greet the children and look at them.

"We're glad you are back, Albert."

"How is the new baby, Maria?"

"Is your mother better, Harry?"

These were some of the remarks that put the children at their ease.

A child reported that Edward who lived in the tent near him had the chicken pox. Discussion followed about the nature of chicken pox and the precautions necessary to prevent an epidemic. Two of the children needed attention for impetigo. The teacher sheltered them behind the screen as she administered the salve left by the nurse.

The major group interest was in a study of clothing. Various committees reported as to progress with their phase of the study of clothing. One boy said that his committee was ready to reel the silk from the cocoons of the silk worms they had raised. Another boy read a recipe for tanning leather that his committee had found. Plans were made for the members of that committee to go into town

with the teacher after school that night to purchase the necessary ingredients. A hide with the hair partly scraped off was brought in from the porch for the group to inspect.

Plans were made for weaving mats on the homemade looms which had been constructed.

There was carding of wool, and an article was read about the growing of flax.

There were questions about where to find material which the teacher answered by calling attention to the new books and magazines she had brought.

For an hour each child went to work upon his own responsibility. Some worked on the porch. Some gathered around the table. Some sat on the floor. Others remained in their seats. Still others worked at the easels perched against the board.

There were children painting pictures showing the history of leather on a long piece of wrapping paper.

Some children were preparing reports on the uses of rubber. Letters were written for information and material. Paper dolls in a variety of clothing were cut from magazines.

There were two rag dolls stuffed with waste cotton.

Some older girls were piecing a blanket from woolen pieces gathered from materials donated to the school.

The teacher moved about among the group, helping, encouraging, praising, and guiding the activities.

Then materials were cleared away. Plenty of time was taken for the clean-up activities. Was anything more important for these children than the assurance that the room would be comfortable and tidy for the rest of the day? A large packing box on rollers was used for storing many of the articles. Transformer boxes obtained from the telephone company held other things. The cloakroom had few wraps and was used for keeping materials that could not be accommodated in the room.

When at last everyone was in his accustomed place the teacher started the phonograph and let the children choose the music they wished to hear. While this was going on a committee of children passed among the group with cod liver oil and graham crackers.

During the next hour some of the children were working at arithmetic; some were studying spelling; others were finishing reports. The teacher taught a reading lesson to one group from *Oregon Chief*, an easy, simple story of third-grade ability but unmarked as to grade. She watched the reading habits of these children as they read to find the answer to the questions she had raised. She helped each one with words he did not know. She asked questions that would culti-

vate independent thinking. After the lesson this group went to the reading table and read for pleasure.

The teacher gathered another group about her and explained the process of borrowing in subtraction.

When time came for physical education, five children went to a box in a cloakroom and brought out mats made of stacked newspaper, sewed together with stout string. They spread these on the floor, pulled the shades, and for twenty minutes they rested. One group played dominoes on the porch. Another played Chinese checkers, a new and popular game donated by one of the teachers.

The larger part of the class played a game of volleyball on the school grounds.

When the children were again assembled in the room the teacher read from *Honk: the Moose*, a book far beyond the reading ability of most of them, but thoroughly enjoyed when read to them.

Later there were other reading groups, and another arithmetic class, and a new song was learned. There was a dramatization of introducing one of the new boys to the group. There was a ten-minute radio program to which various pupils contributed. Here was an opportunity to develop clear speech and correct language.

On the stove was a pail of soup which had been prepared by a committee during the morning. The planning, buying, preparing, and serving of one hot dish on a given budget was the responsibility of this committee. Each week the personnel was changed. Serving was done at the noon hour. Cups served as soup bowls. Children ate in the room at their own places. The new children were special guests and ate with the teacher at the table. They had a cup of soup and crackers. Fruit and cookies were an added feature from the supply the teacher kept for these occasions. They were encouraged to talk about themselves. The teacher had a chance to study them and get acquainted.

Much of the same situation prevailed during the noon hour as to games and rest as during the physical education period. The classroom was open for their use; and restful, quiet games were available. Some of the children read; some played outside.

At one o'clock there was a study of words misspelled in the written work of the morning. The pictures and friezes painted during the morning were examined and criticized. The possibilities of making musical instruments from gourds, and from oatmeal boxes and cans like some the teacher showed the children, were discussed. Plans were made for taking an excursion to a clothing store the following week.

The teacher helped another group with reading. This group was using Deming's *Little Eagle*, a book with which each child in the group could succeed, though it was in no sense a "baby book."

One group of boys was busy mounting butterflies. Another child was drawing an illustration on a stencil for the school newspaper. A large map showing where sheep were raised in the United States occupied the interest of three girls.

Before the day was over, time was taken by teacher and pupils together to make careful plans for the next day's work.

After school the teacher conferred with the school nurse who was in the building. Then she took the members of the committee who were going to purchase supplies for tanning leather into her car and drove into town.

To what extent had this teacher helped these children to live "the good life" in school during this day? She had made them feel her interest in them. They were welcome and wanted. She had been alert to their physical well-being. Opportunity had been provided for each one to succeed at some task. They had received help in reading, language, and number work. They had learned about textiles. There was an opportunity to explore in the field of science and of geography. They had enjoyed the opportunity at self-expression in music, in art, and in dramatization.

The teacher in this school had done these things in an average situation with a minimum of materials and with limited space. She could do a much better job with fewer children, more materials, and more room. The possibility of really knowing forty-five children and meeting their needs in crowded, inadequate quarters is doubtful. We cannot hope for satisfactory adjustments of the curriculum to take care of these children until classes are small enough for teachers to be able to study children. Every good teacher tries to do this thing, but classes for the children of seasonal workers are invariably larger than those of the regular school population. Why do we penalize the teacher who has such tremendous problems to meet by giving her more children than she can handle and then deprive her of the materials that will make her teaching effective? I know all the difficulties of a financial nature which impede our progress along this line, but it can never be met by wishful thinking. The seasonal workers are with us, have been with us, and will be with us for many years. They are needed in the prosperity of California agriculture. Financial help to provide adequate educational opportunity must be provided through state legislation, or by federal subsidy if conditions are to be changed. The moneys to county libraries should be allocated so that books and visual materials may be provided for

emergency schools as well as for the regularly organized school in the district. Superintendents, supervisors, and principals must be aware of the curriculum adaptations to be made and then help teachers to make them.

The children of seasonal workers are not stupid. They may be hungry and may have had few school opportunities before coming to California; they may be tired and cold and afraid, but, foreign or American born, they have more capacity than we have frequently given them credit for. We have been too ready to judge them by standards we had no right to use; we have been too concerned about grades, and pages in a book. We must be more concerned with basic social attitudes that will insure more acceptable living *now* and better citizens of a democracy. Feelings of security and a chance for successful accomplishment are more important to these children than any subject matter, for with security will come ability to learn and without it no amount of driving on reading or spelling or numbers will be very effective.

GUIDING EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN¹

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The term "exceptional children" as used in our schools is applied to all those who differ from their fellows so markedly as to necessitate special educational treatment. These differences may be due to physical handicaps, to extreme mental or academic retardation, to unfavorable home and community conditions which have created behavior patterns which some teachers or principals find unbearable, or to markedly precocious mental development.

PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

Let us consider first what guidance is essential for children and youths who are physically handicapped. First of all, it is important to keep in mind the fact that however serious the handicap—whether it be blindness or deafness, crippled conditions, tuberculosis, cardiac diseases, or any other serious physical impairment—the fundamental needs of all growing children and youths are the same.

They need to be made and kept as well as is humanly possible. They need to feel that they have personal worth—that they are liked and respected as persons in their own right. They need to be assured that there are things which they can do—things that have worth in the eyes of their associates, both child and adult. They need friends of their own age. They need the chance to make decisions and carry out plans. They need regularity, tasks, responsibility. They need affection, but not pity.

An article in the *Forum* of June, 1937, entitled "My Child Was Crippled,"² tells the story of a child who suffered from a spastic condition affecting the lower limbs, and her mother's successful fight to protect her from developing an invalid dependence, to render her courageous, self-assured, and independent is a thrilling one.

In spite of her relatives' disapproval—even indignation—this mother resolutely refused to make special concessions or pamper her handicapped child in any way. The same standards of behavior required of the other children were required of her. She put her own toys away though her mother often ached to help her. She was taught to ride a Shetland pony. At twelve she was taught to swim. At sixteen she learned to drive an automobile. In every possible way, her confidence in her own ability to take care of herself was fostered. At twenty she announced that instead of going to college, she wished

¹ An address delivered to the Summer Conference on Exceptional Children, at the University of California at Los Angeles, July 8, 1938.

² "My Child Was Crippled," *Forum*, XCVII (June, 1937), 339-344.

to go to New York to study design! This was far more independence than her mother had bargained for, but she had the courage to help her daughter carry out this plan, in spite of the incredulous indignation of the relatives. The result was a happy, successful young woman who is now occupying an important position in the interior decorating department of a large store.

A training similarly wise must have been the good fortune of Leslie Blades, who has recently returned to California and established a farm school for children with serious behavior problems near Atascadero. He has been totally blind since his ninth year. For the past six years he and his wife have conducted such a school in Massachusetts. Social agencies, such, for example, as the Judge Baker Foundation of Boston, whose director is William Healy, sent to him children and youths whom other agencies, including state reformatories, had given up as hopeless. They achieve an almost incredible percentage of successful adjustments brought about by wise methods. Two social workers who recently visited Mr. Blade's school plant of 900 acres bring back a story of his personally conducting them over his acres, pointing out fields and streams and discussing plans for work and play as a seeing man would do. Handicapped? He puts seeing folks to shame.

Recently in a speech, he said what children need most poignantly is "a sense of personal adequacy for their own life adventure in the inscrutable future." This, obviously, *he* has achieved. And this he gives to the children entrusted to his care.

The physically handicapped, the socially maladjusted child, must be given this feeling of adequacy and security. It will not come through pity, through sentimentality, or through insincere praise for careless performance. It will come through opportunity to grapple successfully with tasks at first simple and easy but gradually becoming more difficult and taxing.

The guidance of handicapped children and youths differs from that of normal children only in requiring more ingenuity, more courage, and more faith. Their vocational problems are accentuated now by the total unemployment problem. But in so far as their ability to surmount difficulties goes, hundreds of instances can be cited to encourage any handicapped child to plan for practically any career in which he is intensely interested.

MENTALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

What may be said of the mentally handicapped? The day is past when children with intelligence quotients below 70 are believed to be doomed to dependence throughout their lives—if not to delin-

quent careers. Numerous follow-up studies of subnormal children known to the schools prove their potentialities for self-support and good conduct as adults.

One such study reported by the White-Williams Foundation of Philadelphia found numbers of women with mental ages of 9 and even 8 supporting themselves and sometimes their families at power-machine work.

A searching study has been made of the careers of 166 children of Locust Point School near Philadelphia who were classified as subnormal in a survey made in 1914. Complete accounts of the study can be found in the *Mental Hygiene Quarterly*¹ of January, 1917, and April, 1933. Sixteen years after the original study Dr. Ruth Fairbank and her staff located and visited 122 of these 166 cases. Three-fourths of the 122 were self-supporting and only a very few had lived up to the forecast of prostitution, and general social inadequacy prophesied for them by the psychiatrist in charge of the original study.

Reviewing these studies in his recent book, *Mental Health Through Education*,² Ryan says: "With due allowance for the fallibility of psychiatric prognosis and the unpredictable values inherent in 'just growing up' the evidence seems to point unmistakably to the influence of teachers and the educational approach generally." The original study was requested by the principal of Locust Point, Miss Persis Miller, and on the basis of the report, the entire school plant and policy were rebuilt to meet the problem. The school became a community center—for children and adults. And the defective children, visited as adults sixteen years later, remembered this great teacher and friend and the things she had said to them and done for them.

After this, do we dare neglect or despise any child or despair of improving his chances for life and happiness?

GIFTED CHILDREN

The problem of adequate education and guidance of children of superior endowment is one which has interested me for many years. Some years ago I published in *Educational Administration and Supervision*³ an article on special provision for bright children in city schools, based on the naive assumption that when a city superintendent answered a questionnaire on that subject and stated that

¹ C. Macfie Campbell, "The Subnormal Child—A Survey of the School Population in the Locust Point District of Baltimore," *Mental Hygiene*, I (January, 1917), 96-147.

Ruth E. Fairbank, "The Subnormal Child—Seventeen Years After," *Mental Hygiene*, XVII (April, 1933), 177-208.

² W. Carson Ryan, *Mental Health Through Education*. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1938.

³ Elizabeth L. Woods, "Provision for the Gifted Child," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, III (March, 1917), 139-149.

he had special provision for such children, one could find such provision in his schools. Time and experience have made me wiser and sadder. I do not mean that I now believe that all men are liars and that most superintendents are men. I merely mean that I have learned that all of us are liable to mistake the name for the thing named, the shadow for the substance. Many superintendents, knowing that they had ungraded classes (in which oftentimes all types of highly atypical children were cavalierly entrusted to the overstrained ingenuity of a conscientious but often confused and baffled teacher) sometimes doubtless actually believed that they were providing adequate instruction and guidance for their gifted as well as for their dull children. Happily such classes have been banished from most schools. But our problem of giving adequate service to the gifted child is still a pressing one; too often only partially solved, if solved at all.

Who are the gifted? Suppose we agree that for the purposes of this discussion we will designate as bright those children who are mentally much more highly endowed than their fellows. The selection of children for this category will then depend upon the cultural patterns of the community in which they are found. In a simple primitive population, such as that of New Guinea, for example, those children are gifted who are precocious in learning to swim. Later, they become skilled in managing a boat and in trading cleverly with their neighbors at a younger age than do their slower siblings or mates.

Communities and schools tend to exalt academic ability and call these children "gifted" who are endowed with higher ability than their associates in dealing with abstract concepts, mastering subject matter, acquiring reading skills, solving problems, making sound judgments. These abilities are customarily measured with intelligence tests. But here again the cultural pattern and the general intelligence level of the community enter the picture and render arbitrary norms untrustworthy.

Recently, I have had the opportunity to read scores of case studies of adolescents in schools where children having intelligence quotients of 115 were the dullards of the class and where even those of 125 I.Q. were sometimes doing work so far below the average of the class that they were considered very poor college risks and were sometimes strongly advised to forego general college work and seek further training in some field of special interest, such as nursing or dancing or designing. Possibly this was good advice for the children in question—advice which if followed may lead them to happier and more constructive adjustments to life. I am merely making the point that our measures of "gift" are highly subjective and dependent upon standards which vary in different cultures and with different

evaluators. And I wish to suggest that we give serious thought to dignifying in our own thinking gifts for technical skills of construction and workmanship, for human relationships, and all the fine arts of service and homemaking and living together.

This summer I had the privilege of listening to the evening assembly program of the Pacific Coast Workers' School, which was just closing its four-weeks term at Berkeley. The student body president was a man of middle age who went to work after completing the seventh grade. A man with gifts of leadership, combined with a love of fairness and a deep *working* interest in improving the conditions of labor and living for all working men and women, he presided with dignity.

I listened to impromptu talks of workers who are making financial sacrifices that most of us would consider impossible in order to better their understanding of the world in which they live. I heard a waitress (a University of Washington girl), a longshoreman, a locomotive engineer, a jewelry worker, a paper-mill girl from Wisconsin. They discussed their jobs and their hopes with clarity and poise. Then seven of them put on a mock labor-arbitration hearing with humor and dramatic gift of moving power.

Gifted people these—gifted with realistic insight, with human affection, with indomitable ambition to achieve worthy goals of selfhood and brotherhood.

If, however, the discussion has to do with guidance for those children who stand head and shoulders above their fellows in purely intellectual gifts, as I presume it does, I shall accept the definition for purposes of this discussion only.

The term guidance is variously defined in current writing and speaking on this subject. Some authorities propose that all those teachings in groups which have to do with health, social adjustment, family relationships, occupations, and vocational choices be included under that caption. They propose that the word "counseling" be reserved for the individual vocational guidance which is given to an advisee by a trained adviser or counselor.

Other guidance authorities believe that all information and advice which concerns personal living or choices and which is given to groups, should be considered teaching—part and parcel of the school curriculum, and that the terms "guidance" and "counseling" should be reserved for the individual counsel given by an adviser to his advisee.

One thing is clear. Schools which are facing realistically and courageously the task of helping parents to help their children to meet the changed and changing conditions into which our civilization is now launching our youth—these schools are rapidly assuming

the responsibility of giving them knowledges and skills in those areas in which research has shown their problems to lie. These areas are identical for the gifted and for the less well endowed. We can name these areas now with some assurance. They are:

1. The problem of growing up—of achieving independence and selfhood
2. The problem of attaining status and maintaining friendships with their peers—of both sexes, their families, and other adults
3. The problem for adolescents of vocational choice and training for vocations
4. The problem of marriage and establishing and maintaining a satisfactory home

These problems, calling for guidance, are common problems of all children and youths. The fact, however, that the gifted child, under the definition we have accepted for purposes of this discussion, is in some ways markedly different from most of his companions, renders some of his problems more acute, or more acute at an earlier age. Let us canvass the major areas which we have named, and see what may lie before us in dealing with such children.

First, the problem of growing up—of achieving independence and selfhood. We know that maturing in the physical body as well as in the mental and social life usually is precocious in these children. This often makes serious problems in school placements and in the selection of friends. We see its beginning in kindergarten, and it is a wise and ingenious teacher who can keep the precocious child happily busy with projects which stretch his mind, and who can advise wisely with his parents, his admiring friends, and his jealous neighbors. She must think both with him and ahead of him and never permit him to doubt that there are fascinating and interesting things which she knows and which he has yet to investigate. And this applies in geometric accumulation throughout his childhood and youth. The task is monumental, especially if the teacher is handling in one group forty or more children of widely differing capacities, maturities, and needs. So taxing and perplexing is the task that schools often compromise with what administrators may believe is the ideal way of education, and group together very able pupils for at least part of their school activities. I still defend this compromise in school situations where there is as yet no other way of providing for markedly bright children these four essentials of fine educational experiences:

1. Gifted teachers—teachers having superior personalities, superior imaginations, wide and deep knowledge in many areas of learning, and who live richly and happily in school and out of it.
2. School administration flexible enough to permit wide variations from conventional curriculums; flexible enough to permit trips and excursions into the community; flexible enough to permit a gifted teacher to be the

judge of what her group needs and to set up her own methods of meeting these needs.

3. Provision for the additional equipment and materials of instruction which may be needed for carrying out school projects which will challenge the eager minds of children of marked ability.
4. Classes small enough to make it possible for the teacher to explore the special capacities and interests of each child and set him going in ways which will challenge his best abilities.

Gifted children are frequently in some need of guidance in their problem of growing up, of achieving independence. To their families they often seem to be demanding it too soon, and a wise adviser can help them to understand and bear with parents who are too possessive. A wise adviser can sometimes help parents through this difficult period when they are prone to expect too much maturity and responsibility in the morning and grant none at all in the evening of the same day.

Physical problems in this growing-up process are frequently pressing. Recent research in the velocity of growth conducted by Herbert Stolz at the Institute of Child Welfare at the University of California is contributing much to our knowledge of the wide variations in normal growth rate. Variations of as much as four years may occur in the attainment of a given body height in post-pubescent or adolescent children of the same age groups. And the markedly divergent child may be greatly perturbed, emotionally upset, and frustrated in his social adjustment. The wise counselor can help him through this period.

Problems of obtaining status with peers and with adults are closely connected with the one just discussed. Much of the show-off behavior of children which is so hard to bear has its motivation in this entirely normal desire for status—inept and pathetic attempts to secure notice, to prove power, and to feel security in the estimation of mates, teachers, and relatives.

The wise teacher or counselor will recognize this behavior for what it is, and will endeavor to give to the child an understandable concept of the kind of behavior which will secure the admiration which he seeks. She will provide ways for him to show ability in constructive ways. She may have to let him suffer humiliation for show-off behavior, for pain as well as pleasure, failure as well as success, are necessary parts of some learning processes, as Daniel Prescott points out in his excellent book *Emotion and the Educative Process*.¹

Youth's problem of vocational choice and training for vocation is frequently acute for the gifted child. Often he is equally gifted and for a time at least equally interested in a number of fields. Often

¹ Daniel A. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.

he is practically coerced in one direction by a parent who has decided before his birth that he will carry on the family tradition of law or medicine or engineering.

Wise guidance will stimulate him to explore every field of his possible interest, try out his powers; meantime the school should utilize throughout his high school years several of the helpful instruments now available in the form of tests and interest inventories, as well as teacher observations and the students' writings in an endeavor to find that field in which his interests are keenest and in which his best promise seems to lie.

And finally, the problem of mating and homemaking. Our present problem of premarital sex experimentation and our problem of divorce show all too clearly that we can not safely rely on the home or other agencies to take complete responsibility for giving youth the knowledges and attitudes which will save it from possible wreckage. Youth needs instruction—clear, sound, clean instruction regarding not only the physiology of mating and reproduction, but regarding the emotional implications of these processes. In my opinion, our first job as school people is to help teachers to know how to deal with these problems of youth, and make no mistake, they are persistent problems of all youths, as they arise in their natural settings—in the biology class, in the gymnasium, or the playing field, in the social science, home economics, English classes, everywhere. Now and then one sees teachers in all these areas who give this help. All teachers should be equipped to do so. Guidance in this area is sometimes so acutely needed that a specialist in the field of medicine or psychology must be called in. Such cases will be reduced to a minimum as rapidly as teachers can acquire the necessary knowledge and the attitudes requisite to wise handling of the problem.

The preparation of teachers for this basic participation in guidance can not await the slowly evolving changes in curricula and methods in teacher-training institutions. The teachers now in our schools must be given guidance and leadership. This, in every school, especially at the high-school level, should be the chief concern of the counselor, or director of guidance. It is a specialized function, requiring specialized knowledges of mental hygiene, of personality development and adjustment, of vocational aptitudes. Time in the counselor's schedule should be provided so that he will be able to function as a leader of teacher committees, teacher discussion groups, and teacher case-conferences concerned with studying child and adolescent development and the techniques of guidance. Where this is not done, our loss is the more acute in the cases of gifted children who fail to find a school where this philosophy and practice is regarded as basic.

NEW EMPHASIS IN ARITHMETIC

ELGA M. SHEARER, *Supervisor, Intermediate Grades, Long Beach*

An intensive study of the arithmetic program was carried forward during the school year of 1937-38 by the elementary school curriculum committees in Long Beach. As an initial step a study was made of all the available research findings dealing with learning readiness in relation to topics in arithmetic. On the basis of these findings certain processes heretofore assigned to the elementary grades were deferred until the junior high school period. The most important of the deferred processes were the following:

Addition of unlike fractions

Addition of mixed numbers involving unlike fractions

Subtraction of mixed numbers involving unlike fractions

Subtraction of mixed numbers involving borrowing

All processes in decimals except those limited to dollars and cents

The remaining topics were reallocated among the elementary grades in accordance with pupil readiness for mastery. This new outline which constitutes the organized program in arithmetic allows sufficient time for placing emphasis on functional situations rich in quantitative implications.

To create an awareness of the frequency with which these opportunities occur and to stimulate consciousness of their inherent value to the children, a tabulation was made of those reported by teachers as arising during the current year. These examples were varied and interesting in character.

The following samples of pupil experiences reported are selected from those listed by the Frances E. Willard School.

NUMBER EXPERIENCE RELATED TO THE STUDY OF DOMESTIC ANIMALS¹

The study of domestic animals by a fourth grade has been rich in number experience. The members of the class joined the fifth grades in an excursion to a sheep ranch and in purchasing a lamb for the school farm.

¹ Contributed by Minnie Gant, Principal of the Frances E. Willard School, and Alwilda Cranor Emling, Teacher.

The lamb when selected was only two weeks old; so it was left with its mother until weaned. When brought to the school farm it was six weeks old, weighed 25 pounds, and cost the children \$1.50.

It was decided that the first-grade children should care for the lamb on school days, but that over Saturday and Sunday the fourth grade should have full responsibility for its care.

Careful records of the amounts of rolled oats and alfalfa used for feed were kept by the fourth grade children who in turn computed the exact cost of feeding the lamb. The interest expressed in the growth of the pet gave rise to systematic provision for maintaining a weekly record of its weight—the children taking complete charge of both the weighing and recording.

In the course of a few weeks the fourth grade decided that the lamb was growing too large for its shelter and insisted that it needed a larger shelter, or, as they said, a real barn. After an excursion to the school shop, the children felt there was enough suitable lumber on hand to construct a shelter for the lamb. They discussed the barns they had seen on the ranch and looked at pictures of them until they were satisfied they could construct one.

The exact size of the barn proved to be a challenging question. The children measured the old shelter and also the lamb in their effort to decide on dimensions for the new shed. Some of the children who thought themselves equivalent in size to full-grown sheep, curled up on the floor, and turned around on their "own fours" while a committee chalked off on the classroom floor the area each needed. The space was found to be about 4 by 5 feet. Next arose the question of height. The children recognized that the barn should be high enough so that they wouldn't bump their heads while cleaning it. They figured that 4 feet would be amply high if the roof were gabled, thus providing height for a few tall children in the class and likewise insuring plenty of air for the lamb.

The size of the door gave the children considerable concern. Once again they had to think in terms of a full-grown sheep in estimating the desirable width and height of door. Likewise they had to consider ventilation—a problem which they settled by computing the amount of $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch wire mesh needed for the upper one-fourth of the door.

A desirable kind of wood must be secured, and the barn must be painted, therefore costs were seriously considered. From the school budget it was found that the cost of lumber in the amount needed was as follows:

2" x 2" for supports of floor, wall, and roof.....	@ 6c per bd. ft.
1" x 10" or 12" strong boards for floors.....	@ 10c per bd. ft.
$\frac{1}{4}$ " x 10" lighter boards for walls.....	@ 6c per bd. ft.
$\frac{1}{4}$ " x 6" boards.....	@ 6c per bd. ft.
1" x 6" x 4" boards for roof.....	@ 19c per bd. ft.
$\frac{1}{2}$ " x 2" boards for cross supports.....	@ 2c per bd. ft.
4' laths to cover the cracks in walls and roof.....	@ 60c per 100

The size of nails was considered. Very large nails for beams and framework, smaller nails for walls and floor, and shingle nails for laths must be provided. Two strong hinges at 10 cents each and a new padlock at 30 cents would be needed for the door.

When all the prices were computed and totaled, the children were amazed to find what their contemplated barn would cost. They weighed needs against costs and decided to seek permission to go forward with their project.

With the final approval of the principal for the use of the lumber, the children again went to the lumber racks in the work shop—this time to select the exact pieces to be used. They were impressed by the necessity for economy; so they became cautious in avoiding waste. One 2 x 2 inch piece was 18 feet long, another was 16 feet, and the rest were 12 feet. Since the children needed four 5 foot pieces and five 4 foot pieces for the framework, they were confronted with the question as to which could be sawed with least waste.

The children measured five-foot lengths on the eighteen-foot piece and found that a three-foot length would be left over. Similarly they considered the sixteen-foot length and found that a one-foot piece would be left. They then tried the twelve-foot length and found a two-foot piece remaining. None of these possibilities appeared to be very saving of wood, so the children tried another plan.

It was discovered that two five-foot lengths from the eighteen-foot piece left eight feet, or exactly enough for two of the four-foot pieces required. Next the pupils decided to cut the other two five-foot pieces and one four-foot piece from the sixteen-foot length and use the two-foot scrap for corner braces. They still needed four four-foot pieces. With the aid of yardstick and foot rule, the pupils found the twelve-foot length just right for three pieces. By taking one four-foot length from another twelve-foot piece, an eight-foot piece could be returned to the racks with assurance that it was long enough not to be considered waste. Never before had the multiplication and division tables taken on so much meaning to these children.

After the roof beams were in place, the children discovered that some of the end boards would have to be longer than the boards of

the side wall, so they measured the distance from the peak of the gable to the floor. Accordingly, they selected a middle board and cut the top at a right angle to fit the gable end. As the other boards likewise were cut to meet the slanting roof, geometrical concepts were definitely formed.

The construction was completed the Friday before spring vacation began but the barn had not been painted at the time the foregoing account of the work was compiled. Undoubtedly, problems growing out of the selection, purchase, and application of the paint yielded as thought-provoking experiences as did those involved in the actual construction of the barn.

Both the teacher and the principal who followed this activity throughout its course were convinced that the children had gained greater fundamental number concept and had experienced more valuable computational practice than could have been gained in twice the time spent in isolated arithmetic study.

FUNCTIONAL ARITHMETIC IN STUDY OF AVIATION¹

The sixth grade class studying airplanes as a phase of their unit on transportation visited the Long Beach airport on a day when they could observe a large airship. Their excursion took them to the naval airport also.

Upon inquiry the children learned much about the amount and cost of fuel used in operating aircraft. They became aware of altitude for the first time when the airship's barometer was explained to them. After returning to school, they expressed curiosity regarding the altitudes of various mountain passes and eagerly referred to their geography textbooks to obtain exact figures.

From this study of altitude the children gained clearer insight into an important factor in the determination of air routes. Graphs showing comparative elevations of mountain ranges, heretofore of little interest to the class, took on new significance and were discussed with keen interest.

A corresponding interest in airplane schedules and in the altitudes at which planes travel was apparent, and as a result large numbers became meaningful.

The children became aware of the importance of weighing the mail and freight to be carried by plane and grasped the necessity for strict regulation governing the loads.

One of the new interests awakened as a result of the trip to the airport was expressed in calendars kept by pupils who recorded the time of outstanding flights which they were following. Thus time

¹ Contributed by Minnie Gant, Principal, and Florence Ortman, Teacher.

as an important element in business, travel, and naval affairs became more apparent. Several of the pupils expressed a desire to construct airships. This project involved much practical arithmetic. Working drawings were drafted to scale, types of material selected, amounts determined, and costs computed.

CONCLUSIONS

No attempt has been made to give a complete account of either of the foregoing activities. The purpose has been merely to suggest the opportunities for functional arithmetic experiences inherent in these and similar life situations. The new arithmetic program in Long Beach is designed to give major emphasis to learning through experiences such as these and to reduce materially the necessity for teaching arithmetic as an isolated subject.

CRITERIA FOR JUDGING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHING¹

FRANK W. THOMAS, *President, Fresno State College*

Any discussion of a basis for appraising the effectiveness of teaching should take into account at the outset the trend toward a redefinition of teaching itself. Not many years ago the quality of teaching was judged primarily by observing what the teacher did. In more recent times, along with such familiar phrases as the "child-centered" school we have come to recognize that the observable activity of the teacher has far less significance in judging the value of teaching than have the responses of the pupils. The situation is somewhat like the matter of judging the quality of marksmanship. The attention of those who are to judge such a performance is focused upon the target to see what is registered there as to the accuracy and reliability of the performance. While it is conceivable that the stance, posture, and general grace of bearing of the marksman may attract passing attention, the final criteria as to effective marksmanship must be found in what happens at the target.

On this account it seems fitting to emphasize that the criteria which we will have to propose today will be sought, in the main, in the activities of the pupils and in the ways in which these activities are modified as a result of teaching. The whole function of the teaching activity is to stimulate and direct learning, and the tests as to the soundness or unsoundness of these procedures must in the last analysis be found in the pupil response.

In thus emphasizing the point of view, or, may I say, in the current style of terminology, the frame of reference from which our criteria are to be considered, I would not imply indifference as to the teaching performance in itself. If we may make one more reference to our analogy of marksmanship and its target, it may be pertinent to suggest that even in the case of the marksman there are certain things which may well concern the judges even before the target is examined. (For example, we should like to be assured that the alleged marksman at least knows in what direction the target is located, that he has provided himself with some ammunition, and that his recognition of the environmental responsibilities indicates that he is a safe person to be trusted with potent weapons.)

¹ Address given at Conference on Direction and Improvement of Instruction and on Child Welfare Biltmore Hotel, Los Angeles, October 3, 1938.

Similarly, the thoughtful observer will note carefully the activities of the teacher, not as of primary importance in themselves, but as serving to interpret and explain the good or bad effects upon the total responses of the pupils. One of the most promising characteristics of modern supervision is the tendency to look beyond the immediate appearances in the classroom and to appraise the long-range results of what is happening there. For example, we are not deeply impressed by the fact that a schoolroom is orderly until we are satisfied that the methods by which order is secured are promoting increased self-control, cheerful cooperation, and general good will in group relationships. Because of the fact that we are coming to take a wider and more farsighted view in judging the ultimate total effects of reciprocal teacher-learner relationships and activities, it becomes correspondingly necessary to redefine some familiar terms associated with criteria for evaluating the results of teaching. An attempt will be made to do this, or at least to indicate the speaker's conception regarding the proper connotation of certain of these terms, as the following criteria are proposed and discussed.

1. EFFECTIVE CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION

In order that appropriate learning activities may take place and be fruitfully shared by all members of the classroom group, there must be some measure of organization. In this we naturally expect that the teacher will assume leadership in inaugurating and maintaining some system in accord with acceptable educational aims. In this connection I am thinking not so much of the disciplinary routine which was once held little short of sacred, but rather of the working relationships which exist between teacher and pupils and among the pupils themselves. The atmosphere of the classroom with its spirit of candid and friendly interchange of ideas constitutes an inseparable element in good teaching and should be the first factor sought in its appraisal. Even in this criterion the responses of the pupils and the extent to which they regard the group relationships as happy and stimulating will provide the most trustworthy test of this basic phase of teaching. As a matter of fact, the character of classroom organization should set a pattern of democratic citizenship, and it constitutes in an indirect way an invaluable phase of real teaching.

The importance of this indirect and often unconscious learning which comes out of the best relationships in the classroom has been emphasized by Kilpatrick in his stimulating comments regarding the "concomitant" elements in learning. The effectiveness of the so-called direct method of teaching citizenship and character has not yet been demonstrated through convincing evidence. Discerning teachers

have long sensed this fact and have sometimes tried to express it by saying that certain desirable outcomes are caught and not taught. With our growing understanding as to the inseparability of the many varied factors in a total learning situation as emphasized in the newer psychology, we have come to take a broader view as to what constitutes teaching. In so far as the establishment of a wholesome total environment, social as well as physical, determines the character of the pupil responses, just to that extent the teacher's directive influence in providing and maintaining these relationships constitutes teaching in a very real sense. In other words, classroom organization and relationships should be regarded not merely as a phase of management so as to make good teaching possible, but rather as an important part of teaching itself. It is in this sense that we should regard the character of schoolroom organization and relationships as one of the foremost criteria in appraising the effectiveness of teaching.

2. THOUGHTFUL PLANNING

One of the most revealing indications as to the excellence of teaching activities is to be found in the extent of thoughtful planning which is in evidence. Let it be made clear at once that this does not refer to a formal set of plans that are intended to be followed, regardless of circumstances. It means, rather, the readiness of the teacher, through anticipation and preparation, to make the most of the opportunities that arise during the classroom activities and to keep these in harmony with the long-range purposes of education. It will involve carefully conceived studies of individual pupils and their probable responses to various stimuli. It will include preliminary investigation regarding the fruitfulness of materials likely to be centers of attention during the class period. It means that the teacher will be, so far as possible, a confidently informed counselor and leader in the learning adventures which the class period may develop. Through the character and clarity of this planning the teacher will reveal the essentials of her educational philosophy; that is, will show what goals are regarded as of predominant importance; what values are to be conserved whatever else may be sacrificed. Effective teaching is impossible without such thoughtful planning, and its appraisal merits an important place in considering the criteria which we are seeking.

It is possible that someone may be thinking in a critical fashion that what has just been said refers more to preparation for teaching than it does to the appraisal of the effects of teaching. I am conscious of this seeming lack of logic but have exposed myself to the charge deliberately. Occasionally one encounters a group of buildings which impresses one as evidence of wise planning and thoughtful

anticipation of future needs on the part of the designer. In some such fashion the effectiveness of good teaching will be revealed through the evidence that there has been wise foresight and intelligent continuity in the planning of the learning experiences. The trained supervisor or observer will recognize this in the classroom activities and will immediately associate the evidence of wise planning with the results, both immediate and prospective. It is in the long-range effects of such consistent planning that one of the best criteria of effective teaching is to be found. The opportunities of even a trained supervisor for judging this are usually limited to what one may see in action in the classroom, but of course its cumulative results are the real test. It is unfortunately true that much of our evaluation of effective teaching must be based on the limited evidence of the immediate scene, and the ultimate effects must be considered only through careful conjecture.

3. PROMOTION OF PRODUCTIVE PUPIL INTERESTS

It is now a generally accepted principle that some effective use of pupil interest is indispensable in teaching. But the interests of children, like the interests of grown-ups, range all the way from the trivial and transient to the permanent and productive. A test of good teaching is found not merely in the employment of pupil interests, but in the development of the more useful and satisfying types of interests. Let us take, for example, a frequently used source of such interest. Most children respond eagerly to the opportunity for construction involving controllable materials. Fortunately, the variety of forms which activities involving construction may take is almost unlimited, and a great proportion of these may have almost equal interest appeal. The competent teacher will recognize this varied adaptability as a fruitful opportunity and will, through appropriate recognition, encouragement, and appraisal, guide the pupils toward the forms of constructive expression which carry the greatest and most lasting educational values. Good teaching makes constant use of the most dynamic sources of pupil interests available; the best teaching not only retains the dynamic values of such interests, but associates them also with continually better and more enduring outcomes.

This point is a crucial one in evaluating the effectiveness of teaching. One of the most disheartening situations to be observed in many classrooms is the fact that the pupils' interests remain fickle, futile, and transient. The normal impulses of the pupils toward spontaneous expression are not guided into permanently fruitful forms, but are allowed disconnected and abortive outlets. The urge

of the child for verbal expression, the opportunity to tell the world, so to speak, regarding the things which aroused his attention are sometimes allowed to make him a garrulous nuisance instead of an effective user of his mother tongue for well considered purposes. The urge of native curiosity may go no further than meddlesome nosiness instead of developing into scientific inquiry into significant problems. The extent to which these potentialities of the child have been realized is a fundamental test of effective teaching.

4. INCREASING PUPIL INITIATIVE AND SELF-DIRECTION

One of the most important duties of the teacher is to make herself increasingly unnecessary. If our schools are to prepare for reasonably independent citizenship in a democracy, then certainly it is the function of teaching to develop those skills and procedures most appropriate to effective participation in such a society. It is recognized that the teacher must supply guidance, stimulation, and encouragement in generous amounts, but the teacher who is constantly the center of the show is fundamentally a poorer teacher on that account. The encouragement of pupil initiative, the opportunity for pupils to make mistakes and later to profit from correcting them, the giving of recognition due to creative undertakings and to growing powers of self-direction—all these are fundamental elements in good teaching; and there is no more illuminating criterion of effective teaching than is to be found in these attainments.

In this connection a warning seems appropriate. Do not be misled by shallow exhibitionism and superficiality on the part of pupils who like to pose as original. Such pupils too often are seeking attention by a show of pseudo-leadership or by an attempt merely to be different. The fundamental idea implied in this criterion is that there should be a growing recognition of responsibility and that the real controls of conduct should become centered progressively on the inside of the pupils rather than on the outside. This growth in its best form is characteristically personal and individual for each pupil and can usually be better seen in that way than in group reactions. This criterion assumes that pupil growth toward self-direction is an important purpose in teaching and that effectiveness in teaching will promote such growth.

5. COOPERATIVE EVALUATION OF ACHIEVEMENTS

If we accept the principle that growing independence and initiative on the part of the pupil are to be regarded as evidences of good teaching, then it becomes self-evident that there should be a high

degree of pupil participation in the evaluation of their own achievements. The best teaching helps bring the pupils as early as possible to the recognition and acceptance of certain goals toward which the activities of the class are to be directed. Just in proportion to the clarity with which these purposes are understood and accepted by the class, will there be accurate and effective evaluation possible on the part of the pupils themselves. Self-evaluation of achievements is an inseparable corollary of self-direction.

Where the outcomes of learning are predominantly objective in character it is easy to recognize the practicability and value of cooperative evaluation. What is not so generally recognized is the still greater values from cooperative appraisal of many less tangible aims in education, especially those dealing with attitudes and principles of school citizenship. Such matters inevitably involve subjective factors and when the appraisal is made entirely by outsiders, the individual is likely to decline to accept wholeheartedly such appraisal and often harbors instead a mingled feeling of rejection and resentment directly subversive to the educational aims sought. But when the individual pupil accepts in advance as a participating group member the criteria by which the attitudes and practices of citizenship are to be evaluated, and, furthermore, has a share in the ultimate appraisal itself, the teaching has achieved the inner and vital pupil response as well as the superficial and often unreliable external conformity. In both criteria 4 and 5 there is involved the question of pupil growth, and sound criteria of teaching efficiency must take into account the fundamental significance of such growth toward appropriate goals.

6. INTEGRATION OF ACTIVITIES WITH TOTAL SCHOOL PROGRAM

The whole process of teaching and learning throughout the years of public school experience on the part of the pupils should be a harmonious and integrated development. Good teaching will indicate a consciousness of the total school program, including the necessities and limitations of the administrative authorities, the temper and quality of community thinking and community standards, and the interrelated responsibilities of fellow teachers in all levels of the organization. Teaching that may have the superficial appearance of brilliant performance may be very poor teaching indeed if it does not utilize the educational experiences previously encountered by the pupils and does not prepare them for confident and satisfying progress in the experiences ahead. This does not in any wise disregard the fact that the immediate needs of the pupils are the chief concern of the teacher, but the ways in which those needs are satisfied can

make the later educational experiences of the pupil successful and satisfying, or the reverse. Nor would I have this interpreted as a defense for the supervisor or administrator who would mechanize the entire system, leaving little to the judgment and initiative of the individual teacher. Such regimentation merits all the denunciation which we frequently find heaped upon it by resentful victims, but it is none the less true that our educational system must be characterized by teamwork and mutual understanding so that there will be the minimum of those disheartening and upsetting occasions when pupils encounter interruptions and conflicts in what should be a coordinated and continuous series of steps of their educational progress.

It is in this connection that survey tests find whatever justification there may exist for them. Such surveys give at least some indication as to whether the pupils have been learning what the public and the school administration regard as essential or have been taking a road fundamentally disconnected with the generally accepted educational program. Certain adventures in pioneering are commendable and necessary to progress. At the same time, the pupils will find need of adjusting themselves to the general requirements of society, and, in the larger sense, our school programs aim at just such service. Inasmuch as the total program of education is justifiable and in accord with the broader social needs, to that extent is it fair to judge the effectiveness of teaching by evidences that the teacher has been sympathetically conscious of her connection with and responsibility to the total program.

The foregoing list of criteria is by no means complete, but it does represent an attempt to condense into a reasonably brief list the essential criteria by which to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching. Each of these could be analyzed into smaller and perhaps more definite expressions, and it is probable also that some important indications as to the quality of teaching may have been completely overlooked and are not to be found included even by implication in the list here presented. In that event it is to be hoped that subsequent discussion will bring these forth into their merited place of prominence. Any list of criteria is valuable only to the extent that it directs attention to the major values to be served and provides mutually helpful bases for continued progress in this fascinating and exacting service of teaching.

HOW THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL MAY STIMULATE THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM THROUGH BOOKS, SUPPLIES, AND EQUIPMENT¹

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"As is the principal so is the school" has often been the observation made by visitors to elementary schools. Good principals have always used the selection of supplies, equipment, and books as an aid in developing an excellent educational program in their schools. If such a selection of supplies is made with the cooperation of the teachers, it is a very effective method of supervision. It may work wonders in situations where meetings of teachers, conferences with teachers, visits to classrooms, assembly schedules, and the pupil activities of the whole school have shown mediocre results.

FILL TEACHERS' REQUESTS FOR MATERIAL

The principal may gain valuable insight into the abilities and professional attitudes of a teacher in studying and discussing supply lists with her. Some of the advantages which accrue to the principal in these discussions of supply lists with the teachers may be stated somewhat in detail.

For example, the principal may discover the level of teaching of which the teacher is capable from the kind of request which she makes for equipment and supplies. He gains insight into the teacher's abilities, predilections, and techniques. He may base his program for improvement of her teaching ability on the information thus gained.

Furthermore, he has an opportunity to discuss the use of the material or equipment requested by the teacher. If, for instance, she has requested arithmetic drill materials, the principal would be able to participate in planning for its use—that it should have minor rather than major emphasis; that it should fit the needs of the children, the course of study, and the maturity of the pupils.

Usually a question of the choice of this or that piece of equipment enters into the situation since the amount and kinds of materials

¹ An address given before the Regional Conference, California Elementary School Principals, Bay Section, John Muir School, San Francisco, October 22, 1938.

that the principal can provide are limited. Through a discussion of these necessary choices, he may be able to guide the educational program of the particular classroom. For example, he may emphasize the advantage of individual books rather than workbooks and influence the teacher's technique in this way.

The teacher's request may open the way toward improved use of equipment or materials on hand or it may lead to improved organization or techniques of teaching. For example, if she requests mimeographed outlines for book reviews, a discussion of the limits of the value of such outlines might ensue. The teacher and the principal together might decide whether this particular device was of considerable value to the class at this time, or whether there should be other methods of reporting for some pupils, or whether other techniques of securing wide reading were more usable.

When requests from teachers for materials are in direct contrast to a progressive educational program, the principal must decide whether a temporary grant is better than refusal or whether some other more acceptable item may be substituted. Often the principal may be able in such situation to suggest that the teacher undertake an informal experiment. If, for example, she should ask for a complete set of a particular textbook in social studies, the principal might persuade her to experiment with several small sets. In some cases paired sections of the class may be set up for experimental purposes, perhaps for the use of drill materials. In some instances it may be better to allow the teacher her requested materials or equipment if the principal is sure that she is likely to use it effectively although her request is not in keeping with the general philosophy of the school. Workbooks are used very effectively by some teachers; rigid class seating is greatly preferred by other teachers, and ineffective use of movable furniture may result if they are forced to use it against their own inclinations.

Often it may take a real effort and considerable time on the part of the principal to provide materials for the school. He is likely to be limited, especially in a city school system, by what he can get from the central office. Teachers must have confidence that the principal is interested and will do all that he can to obtain requested materials. Moreover, the principal must refrain from putting the responsibility on "them" by saying that "they haven't approved my requisition yet."

In general, the principal must see that the materials or equipment that he gets (1) lead towards the school's ideal program, (2) are useful for many teachers, and (3) are economic, fairly simple, adequate, and flexible.

PROVIDE EQUIPMENT TO FIT THE PROGRAM

A second major policy that the principal can carry out is that of gradually acquiring the type of equipment for the whole school which tends to insure an excellent and well-balanced program. The faculty should participate in determining which of the several needs are most important in putting the educational philosophy of the school into practice.

No matter what the educational program is to be it will require equipment, supplies, and books. Educational programs which include the development of pre-first-grade classes, nonreading first grades, the primary unit—kindergarten, first and second grades—the nonfailure program, the activity program, or emphasis on the socialized program will need implementing.

The activity-type, pupil-purposed side of the elementary school program may call for movable desks, chairs, stools, lumber and blocks, permits to take walks or trips, bulletin boards, exhibit cases, newspapers, magazines, encyclopedias, informational and literary books, game equipment, a craft room, a library, or a little theater.

Training in skills may call for reading texts in small sets (with a basic vocabulary in the primary grades); materials to give practice in acquiring certain upper-grade reading abilities; dictionaries; possibly workbooks and drill materials; concrete materials for arithmetic; tests; rhythm records, and the like.

The appreciation program may call for phonographs and records, radio, pictures, loud speakers, plants and flowers, visual materials, museum trips, art materials.

Provision for handicapped pupils may call for a rest room, cots, blankets, a sun deck, speech correction, remedial reading or arithmetic. Provision for gifted pupils may require many of the items called for in the activity-type program.

For any type of program, particularly the child-centered program, teachers need aids for record keeping and for storage. For example, files for records on child growth, files for permanent records, files for "ditto" and mimeograph materials, a place for large sheets of paper, a board or chest for tools, clay crocks, pupil files for art, English, and writing are needed.

Provision should be made for the professional growth of teachers by providing books and magazines for their use.

UTILIZE EQUIPMENT ON HAND

A third major policy the principal can develop which will mean the improvement of his school's educational program is that of altering practices in the school so that the materials and equipment on hand

are put to more effective uses. Here again the changes in practices should be undertaken by the faculty as a whole. Some of these practices might be given in detail.

Start a school library. Make it operate so that many books are read by the children. Break down the teachers' feeling of private ownership of books which often grows up in the school. Organize the library so that the books fit the reading abilities of the pupils. Rotate books. Allow the children to take books home. Provide magazines, small sets of important materials, and many individual books. Analyze the needs of the library and spend the annual book funds on a planned basis.

List the books in the library by social study units and order books needed for another semester on the basis of topics to be undertaken for study.

Make fugitive materials available.

Use neighborhood services and opportunities. These include the services which add to the materials of the school such as the community library, the stores, and the museums and collections; and those which add to the pupils' understanding such as the fire departments, post offices, airports, and the like.

Provide for the extensive use of all game equipment, bats and balls, and so forth.

Allow generous use of inexpensive supplies. Let the teachers know what materials are to be had in the supply room. Encourage the wise use of supplies for the benefit of pupils. Know the cost of supplies and materials.

Make the classroom furniture movable by putting the desks on skids if necessary. If this expedient is not possible, at least the desks can be rearranged to allow room for classroom activities and screwed down again.

Schedule the use of limited equipment and facilities. These might include such items as the phonograph, radio, projection machine, globes, piano, little theater, and work rooms. Sometimes it is a good idea to schedule one or more of these items and see that they get to teachers whether there is a sufficient demand to warrant scheduling or not. It is often difficult for a teacher to adapt her teaching techniques to a new medium unless it is made easy for her to do so.

Provide for the immediate repair of equipment.

Exchange books or equipment, if necessary with a neighboring school.

Move equipment not in use into classrooms if there is a chance that it might be used; and conversely, remove equipment that is not

being used. Occasionally a set of built-in shelves in an abandoned room can be cut up and placed in classrooms. Or it may be that benches in the yard could be put to more effective use as work benches in a classroom.

Develop a school museum or at least classroom museums.

Assign the school secretary to the teachers to assist them by duplicating materials for class use; keeping clerical records (those records which are not essentially teaching records as some records are); collecting money, arranging class trips and the like. Actually she is the school's secretary rather than the principal's secretary.

This statement has attempted to remind principals of some of the many practices that may be followed in connection with supplies, equipment, and books. It has indicated indirectly that the principal's policies in regard to materials and facilities of teaching may have a profound influence in stimulating teachers to achieve that excellent, well-rounded, child-adapted educational program that he and they have planned.

OBSERVATION AND PARTICIPATION IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS BY STUDENT TEACHERS OF A SMALL COLLEGE

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The problem of providing student teachers with an opportunity for observation and participation in the elementary school was a serious one. In an institution devoted chiefly to liberal arts studies where the training of teachers is only a small part of the work, it is not feasible to organize courses and student programs around the elementary school and its time schedule.

In keeping with the present trends the candidates for the elementary teaching credential take no professional course until the junior year. During the junior and senior years, the candidates meet the requirements for the major and for graduation, and carry twenty-nine units in education and psychology including eight units of directed teaching. The schools in which the students do their directed teaching are a considerable walking distance from the college and cannot be reached conveniently by bus or street car. Because of the distance and time involved, because of the students' full schedule and, because the opening, closing, and intermissions of the public-school day do not fit in with college periods, it is not possible to require students during their junior year to go for daily observation and participation as is so frequently done in teacher-training institutions.

VARIOUS PLANS OF OBSERVATION

Several schemes were tried out with indifferent success. At first, provision was made for the three-week period of observation at the beginning of the directed teaching. This allowed for gradual induction into the duties and responsibilities of the student teacher. However this period of time proved too short, allowing insufficient time for assimilation of ideas and growth; but since at best the students do only thirty-one or thirty-two weeks of teaching, more time could not be allowed.

Another plan was to require the students to observe in an elementary school for a minimum period of an hour a week during the last semester of the junior year and to report their observations in writing. Variations of the plan were used, such as limiting the students' observation to one room with visits repeated at different times of the day so that they might get an idea of the various activi-

ties of one group or of distributing the observation throughout the grades in an attempt to give them a sampling of the various subjects and activities. This plan was somewhat more successful than the mere preteaching observation in that the students spent more time and had greater opportunity for the observation of varied activities and for the assimilation of ideas. However, the second plan was too haphazard. Because of the irregularity of the observation schedule, the supervising teacher frequently took little or no responsibility in helping the student to understand the class activity. Some students whose programs were flexible or who were fortunate in having free periods especially in the morning obtained a good deal of information. Others got practically nothing. Also the students had no contact with the pupils in the classroom nor any responsibility.

Another plan was that of having a series of twelve demonstration lessons in connection with one of the theory courses. This was helpful in illustrating technique, but again the student had no chance to participate.

PARTNERSHIP SYSTEM OF OBSERVATION

Finally a system of partnership or the Little Sister Plan was worked out. During the last semester of directed teaching each student teacher is given a partner, or a Little Sister—a second-semester junior who will go into directed teaching the following fall. Class schedules are studied and arranged so that the junior student is free at least twice a week during the time her partner is doing directed teaching. They go to and from the elementary school together. On the walk to the school the student teacher explains what she and the class expect to do that day, how they are going to do it, and why the particular lesson or activity has developed or been chosen. She also tells her partner what, if anything, the latter is to do.

The junior engages in various kinds of activities during her stay in the classroom. Sometimes she acts as a secretary, keeping careful record of the discussion, noting who participates, the maturity and thoughtfulness of the contributions, and the skill with which the student teacher guides the thinking and work of the group. Such a record is very helpful to the student teacher in analyzing her growth and is also invaluable training for the Little Sister. Sometimes the junior takes an individual or small group aside for special help in arithmetic combinations, spelling, some formal phase of language, or reading. She can be especially helpful during the social science period by assisting with reports, and reference study, projects, and activities. She may also take some responsibility for ventilation and lighting in the schoolroom.

In addition the junior student does work outside the class, such as correcting and scoring papers, either daily work or tests, and planning corrective teaching for the class or individuals. This works out especially well in the formal subjects. She may score standardized tests, tabulate or graph the results. She may gather materials and pictures which may be of use. She may also plan the seatwork.

Frequently the junior is present while the supervising teacher and the student teacher have their conference. On the return from the school the students evaluate the lesson, discuss what needs to be done; and frequently the student teacher must defend her choice of method and materials from the criticism of her partner. In these ways, the ideas of both students are challenged and both profit by the shared experience.

The supervising teachers are pleased with the plan. They say that it saves as much as five, six, or even eight weeks in the fall. The student teachers beginning their training are already partially oriented and undertake their work much more quickly because they have had a little experience and can relate their theory work to actual situations. This experience whets their appetites for directed teaching and they find it motivates their reading and study during the summer. The student teachers, because the plan forces them to discuss their plans and activities, find it makes them more critical and helps to clarify their thinking. Naturally the higher the type of student teacher with whom the junior is placed the more the latter profits. The supervisor finds the plan helpful because the strengths and weaknesses of the students can be located and built up where necessary. This plan also makes it possible to give students experience at one more level than before because a student is not placed for directed teaching in the same grade in which she worked as a junior while observing and participating as a partner. Under existing conditions, with the elementary schools at some distance from the campus, with no demonstration school, and lack of time during the junior year to give directed training, this plan seems to give a maximum return.

HOMES AND CHILDREN

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The comparatively complex institution of organized education sometimes proceeds on the theory that it is the most important educational force operating on the child. This is sheer delusion and the sooner educators recognize it as such the better. Such a statement is not intended to belittle the school because the school is significant, but it is only one of the many complicated social and psychological forces playing upon the most pliable material known—the young human being.

Other forces such as the radio, the printed word, the gang with which the young person associates, and the motion pictures are vital influences in determining the pattern of growth of the young personality. The success of such a film as "Snow-White and the Seven Dwarfs" and the showing of other motion pictures based on the transformation of a "reform" school by a thoroughly human director, have brought educators to the awareness of this social and educational influence which has more potentialities for good or harm than most of the other avenues of influence on modern youth.

Another significant force operating on the young person is obviously the home. The importance of the classroom in the perfection of skills and the refinement of concepts cannot be denied, but it has no opportunity to operate until the personality of the child is fairly well determined. Previous to the school in time, and psychologically prior and more powerful, the home has a tremendous advantage. It has done much of its work in the formation of basic attitudes, emotions, and ideals during the most impressionable years of life and before the school has had opportunity to function.

The home is the most powerful factor in the production of delinquents, and society must recognize this and work toward a solution of the problem through the education of parents and children. In a report of the Los Angeles City Schools¹ it is stated that "the three most important contributing conditions, in point of numbers, causing antisocial acts by Welfare Center boys are . . . lack of parental control, broken homes, and bad companions." It will be

¹"Report of Boys' Welfare Center Activities, 1925-1934." Prepared by Alfred L. Blanchard, Supervisor of Attendance in Charge of Welfare Centers, Division of Service, Attendance, and Employment of Minors Section. Los Angeles: Los Angeles City Schools, p. 4. (mimeographed).

noted that two of the three are definitely home conditions, and the third is only another evidence that the home has failed to establish standards in the selection of associates.

In her delightfully realistic style Mrs. Wernbridge¹ tells the story of poor little Phoebe and her pitiable parents. Because Mr. and Mrs. McPherson both so thoroughly misunderstood her as well as themselves, Phoebe once attempted suicide. She was only prevented from carrying out her plan by the fact that her father's appearance at the bathroom door so frightened her that she let fall the bottle of carbolic acid and it was splintered on the floor. This fortunate incident led to a better understanding of Phoebe by her parents and to the ultimate solution of the problem.

While this is an extreme case it is a good example of the possible final results of parental pressures on the child. Phoebe's father and mother were fortunate. Many parents have arrived too late. In this example the cause is rather obvious. It is well recognized, however, that there are many other contributing causes in the lives of delinquents which are not so obvious and which act covertly on the personality of youth. Modern psychology seems to have shown rather clearly that the influence of one person upon another is not easily analyzed. There are many subtle factors at work upon the child and, as W. A. White has said,

... he picks up the emotional flavor of the environment as effectively as a glass of milk in the ice chest acquires the flavor of the onions that might be lying nearby.²

One of these more subtle factors is what Cyril Burt calls defective family relationships.³ It has become clear that the child who is not a member of a fairly normal home works under a considerable handicap. It has been shown in Los Angeles that "every other behavior problem boy will be found in a home that is abnormal as regards organization and marital relationships."⁴ The child in the average home is a member of a small and rather self-contained group, the oldest members of which unite in their efforts to care for him. In addition there are others near his own age who can assist him in preparing for the great world outside and who will frankly criticize him when he fails to conform to standards. The delinquent, on the other hand, is apt to come from the home which is defective in many or all of these prerequisites to a wholesome social adjustment.

¹Eleanor R. Wernbridge, *Life Among the Low-Brows*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1931.

²Quoted by Ethel S. Dummer in the Foreword to the following publication: Miriam Van Waters, *Youth in Conflict*. New York: Republic Publishing Company, 1925, p. ix.

³Cyril L. Burt, *The Young Delinquent*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1925, p. 90.

⁴"Report of Boys' Welfare Center Activities 1925-1934," prepared by Alfred L. Blanchard, Supervisor of Attendance in Charge of Welfare Centers, Division of Service, Attendance, and Employment of Minors Section, Los Angeles: Los Angeles City Schools, p. 5. (mimeographed).

One of the phases of defective family background which is well worth some time and thought is that of the broken home. After interviewing thousands of boy and girl minors "on the road," Thomas Minehan¹ came to the conclusion that the broken home accounted for practically all of these cases. The family into which the child is born is not a matter of his own choice. It exists before he is born and it expects certain things of him. The young child must learn to adapt himself to the family mores. The family has two chief functions in relation to children: to pass on the culture that has been acquired and to guide in the formation of attitudes and personality. Of the two the latter is probably the more important. In significant studies of juvenile delinquency, the condition of family life has been one of the first considerations. Particular effort has been expended upon the disorganized or broken home.

In a government report on the causes of crime, it is pointed out that between 45 and 50 per cent of all cases of delinquency are boys and girls who come from broken homes—homes where one parent has died or deserted the other. There seems to be little doubt that the broken home is a contributing cause to the disintegration of the personality of the child.

The educator needs also to consider those homes which are on their way to becoming broken homes. Miriam Van Waters has said that "the saying 'A family is a tyranny ruled over by its meanest member,' is a description of the conflict in homes which, in process of becoming broken, send their members to courts, clinics, and hospitals for the insane."² Selfish parental attitudes, for example, produce conflicts in the home which can result only in delinquency unless the attitudes are changed.

Another powerful factor contributing to delinquency of youth appears to be poverty. In one study it has been found that 53 per cent of all the delinquents observed came from poor or very poor homes. This does not mean that poverty alone is the cause of delinquency in these cases, but rather that it is one of a complex of causes and undoubtedly a significant one. However, as can be seen, there is another 50 per cent of delinquents mentioned in the same study who came from homes that are *above* the poverty line. While poverty is obviously a possible additional spur to stealing and other forms of crime, it is only one among many.

In the case of the poor, bad behavior is considered indicative of bad tendencies which in the family above the poverty line would undoubtedly never be noticed. This difference in basic philosophy

¹ Thomas Minehan, *Boy and Girl Tramps in America*. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1934.

² Miriam Van Waters, *op cit.*, p. 63.

is well illustrated by a case reported by Burt. He tells of one poor distracted mother who brought her eight-year-old boy to the court because he was always stealing. As she said:

As soon as he could reach the table on tiptoe he'd be stealing lumps of sugar or dipping his finger in the condensed milk. And now whenever he comes in from his play, it's "Mum, can I have a bit of cake?" And if I wasn't there to ask, he'd just grab it. . . . Then the other day he wanted a piece of rope for a wheel cart he'd made, and he finds a bit of sash cord in the cupboard what his big brother has been keeping for months and months against wanting; and he takes and cuts that up into little bits. Now his brother goes to mend the blind; and, of course, it's gone; and who's to pay for a new piece of cord?¹

The poor have their own way of looking at such small things—or what appear to persons of more fortunate economic status to be small things. It should not be too astounding when a child steals something for which he feels a need and for which he has no money to pay. Since the child cannot understand the need for such careful saving, especially when he is, from his own point of view, in need of the thing, the significance to him of a piece of string in the lives of those about him is not great. From this sort of small habit he may easily fall into others of trickery and deception which when he finds that they work *inside* the home may lead him out into that world *outside* his home where he will continue to employ similar methods.

In a study which Burt carried on in London he found that more than one-half of the delinquents canvassed had not only poverty in their background but also the other factor which was discussed earlier—defective family relationship. The causal relationships between these different factors is difficult to determine. Whether poverty causes defective family relationships or vice versa cannot be determined, but both frequently occur together. The most significant single factor in the promotion of delinquency is the broken home. Close on its heels follow other forms of what Burt has called defective family relationships. And the other chief cause—though it may be merely a precipitating cause—is poverty. In addition the factors inside the home which lead to delinquency are often of such a subtle nature that they are not apparent even to the members of the family itself.

It is important that parents understand the significance to children of a home as free from conflict and stress as possible. It is equally important that teachers understand the influence of the home on the child's personality and that schools assist children and parents in all possible ways to build homes which are free from stresses and tensions, and which provide a harmonious atmosphere conducive to human development.

¹ Cyril L. Burt, *op. cit.*, footnote, pp. 80 and 81. Quoted by permission of the publishers.

REPORT OF CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION OF CHILDREN OF SEASONAL WORKERS—FRESNO STATE COLLEGE, DECEMBER 9-10, 1938

HELEN HEFFERNAN, *Chief, Division of Elementary Education,
California State Department of Education*

The California State Department of Education in cooperation with the California School Supervisors Association, San Joaquin Valley Section, and the California Elementary School Principal's Association, Central Section, held a Conference on Education of Children of Seasonal Workers at Fresno State College, December 9-10, 1938, to discuss all aspects of the problem.

No problem looms larger on the educational horizon in California than that of the education of children of seasonal workers. No one knows exactly how large the problem is because of the great mobility of the workers in the agricultural areas of the state. In the period from June, 1935, to June, 1936, the Resettlement Administration reported that 71,000 migrants entered the state. In April, 1938, the Simon J. Lubin Society of California stated: "There are now more than 250,000 homeless migrants in the agricultural fields of California."¹ A study of the educational problems in a sampling of counties would indicate that at a conservative estimate 30,000 of these migrants are children of school age.

The conference gave attention to problems of providing labor for crops, housing in labor camps, health, social welfare, and education. Various federal, state, and county agencies as well as interested private organizations participated in the discussions. The Farm Security Administration was represented by Dr. Omer Mills, Regional Economist, Division of Immigration and Housing; the California State Department of Industrial Relations was represented by Edward A. Brown, Supervisor of Camp Inspection; the California State Department of Public Health was represented by Dr. Ellen Stadtmuller, Chief, Bureau of Child Hygiene; the California State Department of Social Welfare by Mrs. Helen Wightman Simmons; Child Welfare Services by Miss Dorothy Spurling; the State Department of Education by Miss Helen Heffernan, Chief, Division of Elementary Education, Mrs. Gladys L. Potter, Assistant Chief, Division of Elementary Education, Mrs. Lillian B. Hill, Chief,

¹ John Steinbeck, *Their Blood is Strong*. 25 California Street, San Francisco: Simon J. Lubin Society of California, Inc., April, 1938, preface.

Bureau of Attendance and Migratory Education, and Dr. Charles Bursch, Chief, Division of Schoolhouse Planning.

Private organizations represented at the conference included the California Congress of Parents and Teachers, the California State Chamber of Commerce, the California League of Women Voters, the Young Women's Christian Association, and the Rosenberg Foundation. The California Congress of Parents and Teachers was represented by Mrs. James K. Lytle, President; Mrs. Rollin Brown, President, Tenth District; Mrs. Mark F. Jones, Mrs. Alden Drury, Mrs. J. Ross Bowler, Mrs. John Muller, Mrs. A. Young, Mrs. Glenn W. Hovey, and Mrs. Walter F. Knapp. The California State Chamber of Commerce was represented by J. W. Halleen, Manager, San Joaquin Valley District. The Y. W. C. A. was represented by Mrs. Kenny Droge. The California League of Women Voters was represented by Mrs. Bradley Brown, State Chairman of Government and Education, Mrs. Frank W. Hart, Mrs. L. J. Brown, Miss Fuez Welch, and Miss Georgiana Carden. Mrs. L. W. Ganyard and Mrs. Louise Branston represented the Rosenberg Foundation.

The school departments of eighteen counties, including Colusa, Fresno, Kern, Kings, Los Angeles, Madera, Mariposa, Merced, Sacramento, San Bernardino, San Joaquin, San Luis Obispo, Santa Barbara, Santa Cruz, Shasta, Stanislaus, Tulare, and Ventura were officially represented.

THE ECONOMIC BASIS OF THE MIGRATORY PROBLEM

The need of a large amount of farm labor in California lies at the root of the problem. According to Dr. Omer Mills, one-third of the large scale farms of the country are in California. Farm laborers work for a relatively few large employers of labor as indicated by the fact that 12 per cent of the farms in California employ 78 per cent of the labor. After the peak of the harvest many agricultural laborers are out of employment. It is estimated that in September, 150,000 agricultural workers are required, while in January and February only 50,000 are required.

The labor difficulty arises out of California's peculiar crop pattern. Large numbers of laborers are required for the peak season which means that thousands of unemployed workers become a problem to government agencies concerned with health, social welfare, and education during many months of the year.

The problem is further complicated by the fact that when crops are ready to harvest, the growers are anxious to have them harvested as soon as possible. The call for labor is frequently in excess of the need. In 1937, there were enough workers to harvest the cotton;

this year the cotton acreage was decreased. Weather conditions reduced the fruit crop. The result is that in 1938 there was a surplus of 40,000 workers. As a result there has been a rapid and ceaseless movement of workers seeking employment.

A number of steps were suggested by Dr. Mills to correct the chaotic labor situation in the state. In the first place, a plan must be established to route agricultural labor through government employment service, and second, whatever surplus labor exists must be drawn off and employed elsewhere. The excess number of workers may be assigned to various conservation projects.

THE LABOR CAMP PROBLEM

The educator recognizes that if education is to be effective, children must come to school in a physical condition conducive to learning. One of the most pressing problems related to migratory labor is the problem of housing of the workers. Edward Brown contributed significant facts with which the Division of Immigration and Housing of the State Department of Industrial Relations is confronted in attempting to enforce the law in relation to labor camps. In California, with 4,500 labor camps and 3,500 auto camps which serve as temporary shelter for many migratory families, there are three supervisors of camp inspection provided in the department. In spite of the inadequate personnel, conditions have been greatly improved in privately owned labor camps through the cooperation of interested growers.

THE PROBLEM OF HEALTH

According to Dr. Ellen Stadtmuller, of the California State Department of Public Health, recent studies of health conditions among seasonal workers revealed that a third of the children were malnourished. The great need of these people is to know how to maintain a fairly adequate diet on a small income.

The State Department of Public Health has recorded the fact that typhoid has flared up in certain areas; in spite of mosquito abatement activities, 324 cases of the most serious type of malaria have been reported; some cases of smallpox have occurred. Pellagra, hitherto unknown in California, has been reported; and some alarm is felt concerning the possibility that the soil in certain areas has already been contaminated with hookworm fungus.

Many activities designed to safeguard health and prevent epidemics have been carried on by state and county health agencies. Typhoid and diphtheria immunizations, vaccinations, tuberculosis

clinics, baby clinics, nutrition demonstrations constitute a part of the protective services that have been rendered.

THE EDUCATION OF THE CHILDREN OF SEASONAL WORKERS

In presenting the problem of providing education for the children of seasonal workers, Miss Heffernan pointed out that the school attendance and child labor laws of the state are established to prevent the exploitation of children. These laws are intended to guarantee the rights of children regardless of social or economic status or parental attitude. The future of the state depends upon the intelligence of its citizenry. It is unthinkable in the interests of social welfare and civic progress that any group of children shall be deprived of educational opportunity. The unique basis of American civilization is an enlightened people. A group of children who are deprived of the opportunity of physical, mental, and spiritual development becomes a threat to the very foundations of democracy.

For the past twenty years, the California State Department of Education has adhered consistently to a definite policy in relation to the education of migratory children. It is a policy consistent with the ideals of democratic equality of opportunity guaranteed in the Constitution of the United States and consistent with the laws of the State of California. This policy may be briefly stated in these words: Wherever there are children of school age, it is the responsibility of the constituted educational authorities to establish and maintain schools of a quality equal to that of schools provided for the permanent residents of the community.

In order that this policy may be carried into effect, the following specific provisions have been enacted into the laws of the state:

The county superintendent of schools may, whenever in his judgment it is necessary, in order to provide elementary education for children residing in his county, or in order to provide elementary education for children of migratory laborers engaged in seasonal industries within his county, and funds are not available from other sources, establish and maintain one or more elementary schools for such children, or provide one or more emergency teachers for the regular elementary schools of the district of his county for such pupils, and/or provide transportation for such children to an elementary school. The county superintendent of schools may pay any expenses incurred in providing all the facilities and services authorized in this section, including necessary capital outlays from the unapportioned county elementary school fund.¹

But the problem is more than the enforcement of laws; it is one of developing public understanding and support of the program the law makes possible. School superintendents need public support

¹ School Code section 4.192.

in the activities they are empowered to undertake in behalf of these migratory children. Meeting the educational needs of these children means provision of proper school buildings with standard classrooms and proper sanitary facilities. It may mean providing showers and bathing facilities which are too frequently totally lacking in the labor camps. It may mean providing for a noonday meal of nourishing meat, fruits, vegetables, and milk. It may mean providing facilities for rest. It may mean providing for physical examinations and other health services. It may mean modification of the school program to give greater emphasis to the immediate problems of these children.

Unfortunately the school superintendent does not always find the needed support. If the facts are to be faced realistically, we must admit that there is frequently discrimination against migratory children. Such children and their parents are wanted only as a solution to a labor problem. They are not considered an integral part of the community life; the children are not wanted in the regular schools because of considerations of cleanliness, health or social status; and some socially myopic adults who would decry long hours of labor as barbarous for their own children, actually advocate labor rather than education for the migratory child.

Local authorities are frequently in full sympathy with the grower who must get his crop harvested. Sometimes members of local school boards are employers of migratory labor and cannot view the problem impartially from the point of view of child welfare. The walnut grower or the prune grower feels his own economic need far more than he feels the child's need of education. All that is left to protect the children of migratory workers is an aroused public sentiment. Socially minded citizens must protect children from ignorance. The children, themselves, are too young to recognize the harm that is being done them. Their parents are too concerned with immediate economic distress to take a long view of the child's welfare.

Society has a great stake in the future of these American children. The personal injustice done each overworked, undernourished, poorly educated child who lives in unwholesome labor camps will eventually bear fruit. The migrant child of today will become a serious liability to the country tomorrow as cheap labor, as a poorly educated citizen, as an abnormal, unsocial, and unhappy human being.

The high degree of mobility of the American people is fairly well recognized by sociologists. Continuous migration characterizes life in America today. California has long had reason to appreciate the

fact that the time-honored advice "go west, young man" has penetrated into every community of the nation. Recent years have seen literally thousands of families deserting their homes in drought-impooverished areas to follow the trail of earlier pioneers in the dramatic westward movement which characterizes our national history.

California has developed an educational program of which it is justly proud. But in this age of the trailer, the schools of California are being inundated with a migration of children from states in which educational opportunity is below our standard. In this migration, school administrators see their carefully developed organizations disrupted; teachers are bewildered by enormous enrollments of retarded children; the children themselves are distressed as they try to make adjustments to environments of family instability, of emotional unrest, of economic insecurity, of substandard living conditions which jeopardize health and morals.

Out of our present situation arise two inescapable lines of thought: (1) Education must increasingly become the concern of the federal government in order that children in all parts of the country may be afforded equal educational opportunity (2) In this emergency caused by drought, dust storms, and economic dislocation, the federal government must cooperate with the western states in meeting the needs of these families by supplying suitable housing and by helping the state and local communities to meet educational, health, and social welfare needs. The excellent federal labor camps represent a step in the right direction, but this program must be extended into many other areas than those now served.

The racial composition of our migrants has changed. In 1930 it was largely Mexican. Now, it is largely American stock from the drought states. These migrants have arrived and continue to arrive in cars of ancient vintage with homemade trailers attached—and, they have come to stay. There is little likelihood that any great number will return to their previous homes; they will become permanent residents in some part of our state. The problem for us as a state and nation is to find ways and means to extend economic security, education, health, and social service to them.

THE PROGRAM OF THE CONFERENCE

Many specific problems related to the education of the children of seasonal workers. The Friday morning program was devoted to problems of administration.

Clarence W. Edwards, Superintendent of Schools, Fresno County, reviewed the legislation which has attempted to meet the problem of providing schools for migratory children. In a large county such

as Fresno County, it is possible to secure a sufficiently large sum to meet the needs of migratory children. During the current year Fresno County will spend \$50,000 to meet emergency educational needs. In smaller counties, the legal provisions do not supply a sufficient fund to meet the needs. Mr. Edwards recommended that a state emergency education fund be established to supply money for support of schools when rapid increases in school population render local school finances inadequate.

Mrs. Macie I. Montgomery, County Superintendent of Schools, Shasta County, reported the problem of supplying school facilities for children of migrant laborers who have come to Shasta County seeking employment on the construction work of the Central Valley Water Project. Contrary to the situation reported in Fresno County, the total amount the superintendent has available for emergency schools is \$9,000. Already some 300 children have arrived in the little communities which have sprung up around the project. Superintendent Montgomery estimated that there will be a thousand children at the project by the time school opens next year.

R. T. Neideffer, representing Superintendent Lawrence E. Chenoweth of Bakersfield, presented a paper on the problems arising from the transfer of children of seasonal workers from rural to city schools.

Some of the problems and conditions, as well as administrative difficulties arising from the transfer of children of seasonal workers from rural schools to our city schools, which have come to my attention and to the attention of principals in our school system, are as follows:

1. Several children of seasonal workers accumulating in each class seriously handicap the class's progress and full observance of the established course of study. Lack of information as to achievement, grade, and even age of the child handicaps immediate proper placement as these children are usually overage and below grade level. These children usually have considerable difficulty in making a satisfactory social adjustment because (1) they do not remain in one place long enough to establish ties of friendship and permanent interests, (2) temporary home conditions are much different than our stable, permanent homes and the children are conscious of this, (3) home philosophies are reflected in an indifference on the part of the children toward local social standards.

Another administrative difficulty is in adjusting the teacher-load due to these unpredictable increases in enrollment, and the rapidity with which they change location.

While children of seasonal workers present an administrative problem in grade placement on account of being oversized and overage, they are not necessarily of low mentality. They are behind in all school work and need much individual attention from teachers whose rooms are already crowded. When the teacher feels that she is beginning to see some good results, the children are off again, leaving the teacher with a feeling of discouragement or of unfulfillment.

Many of these children suffer from a 'defeatism' complex. Their parents have often met economic defeat and the children have faced it at home and it has been supplemented with their defeat in school work due to the frequent changes when success was in sight. They too seldom experience success—something that is requisite to happy, adjusted and well-balanced living. Since these children have come from a variety of school systems with different standards, it is necessary to give them extensive, individual instruction before they are academically adjusted to the group.

Many of these children present health problems because the nature of their existence requires their contact with all sorts of unhealthful conditions. This problem reaches further. Children from our 'stable' families are in contact with possible contagion from all parts of the country.

Ours is considered to be a school system with progressive ideals and the adjustment of the incoming individual to know our attitudes and ideals of progressive education is particularly evident of children from seasonal workers. D. Theodore Dawes of the Kern County Superintendent's office has published a careful study of migratory children in Kern County¹ and indicates some of the problems that arise from these conditions.

Now as to several other difficulties in administration:

1. The utter lack of any form of accumulative records. In many cases, the children report to school without even any transfer slips. This last, of course, is not the fault of the school from whence the child came, but rather that of the parent of the child in not informing the school of their intention to leave. Sometimes it may not even be the fault of the child or parent because seasonal workers have a way of slipping away between dark and dawn.

If the State Department of Education would supply some sort of small card on which any record of value to a school could be recorded and this card forwarded from school to school with the child, or mailed, a great deal of wasted effort would be saved teachers and principals as well as being of considerable value to the child's welfare. If advisable, the records could be entered in code. In short, a traveling record of the child's progress in California schools as well as an account of his ability, habits, and social and physical growth, insured by the State Department would be of great assistance in solving some of these administrative problems.

2. At the same time that we discover difficulty of proper placement to meet the mental, social and physical needs of these children, we find that they are generally more than a full grade below the permanent children in the same grade. This fact was demonstrated by a thesis prepared by Herbert Blackburn, Principal of the Hawthorne School in Bakersfield. Such a wide range makes proper placement, if the welfare of the whole child is to be considered, as it should be, difficult.
3. The social habits and background of children of seasonal workers may often, if not carefully supervised, lower or break down the pupil morale of the entire school. Examples of chewing and smoking tobacco in lavatories, and sex conduct on the playground, together with social diseases in the elementary level, have become evident with the greater advent of the children of seasonal workers.

¹D. Theodore Dawes, "Migratory Children," *Sierra Educational News*, XXXIV (September, 1938), p. 12.

Briefly, the above named situations are some of those problems of administration which the superintendent's office has had brought to its attention either personally or from the field with the advent of children of seasonal workers on transfer from rural to city schools.

Mrs. Lillian B. Hill, Chief, Bureau of Attendance and Migratory Education, reviewed problems of administration from the point of view of the California State Department of Education. She closed with the apt quotation from Herbert Hoover, "The only way civilization can march on is on the feet of free, happy childhood."

The Friday afternoon session was devoted to a discussion of problems from the point of view of supervision. Miss Sally Wallen, Supervising Nurse, County Health Unit, San Bernardino County, presented the methods by which the health problems are met. She pointed out that infectious diseases, such as impetigo, scabies, and conjunctivitis are most difficult to handle among the migrant group. The children come to school without proper treatment, not because their parents are unaware of their need, but because they cannot afford to secure treatment. When the school is able to supply treatment and medication excellent cooperation is secured from the home in most cases. The percentage of physical defects is much higher among migrant children. Enlarged and infected tonsils, poor vision, defective hearing, crippled bodies from poliomyelitis are all met in the daily work of the school nurse.

H. W. Kelly, Supervisor of Child Welfare and Attendance in Kern County, presented the problem as he has studied it in Tulare and Kern counties. He presented figures showing the growth of the problem in Kern County over a period of years by the number of children received in the schools of the county by transfer:

NUMBER OF CHILDREN RECEIVED BY TRANSFER

1933-34.....	9,222
1934-35.....	8,234
1935-36.....	9,548
1936-37.....	14,965
1937-38.....	17,708

A program of such magnitude is beyond the ability of a local area to meet unless federal and augmented state aid can be secured.

In discussing the employers and the enforcement of the school attendance law, Mr. Kelly said he had secured excellent cooperation wherever the grower understood the law. Mr. Kelly sends out a letter "To Parents, Employers and Persons Interested in Child Welfare of Kern County" requesting cooperation in securing law enforcement.

Miss Edla L. Schreiner, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Rural Education, Ventura County, discussed how the educational program is adapted to the needs of the fourteen hundred migrant children enrolled in Ventura County schools. The problem of adapting the program to meet the needs of migrant children is much the same as the problem of all children. Emphasis is placed on making the children feel welcome and happy in the school. The health problem is most important with emphasis needed on nutrition. The school must in most cases provide additional food if the children are to be sufficiently nourished to profit from instruction.

E. E. Frasher, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Fresno County, presented an interesting picture of the growth of the migratory school problem since the introduction of cotton into the crop pattern in 1928.

The program on Saturday was devoted to problems of instruction. Many elementary school principals from the Central Section and a number of teachers of migratory schools were able to be in attendance. C. S. Clark, a teacher in the Alamo School of Madera County, gave a stirring picture of how a group of socially minded teachers can cope with the almost insuperable social and educational problems a migratory school presents.

Mrs. Gladys L. Potter, Assistant Chief, Division of Elementary Education, gave a paper with excellent specific suggestions for the organization of instruction in the schools for seasonal workers.¹

The afternoon session was devoted to an open forum discussion. Among the questions raised were many which reveal the problems confronting teachers in migratory schools. Some questions of especial interest follow: How can we get needed corrective service for children of poor vision? How can the school contribute to the improvement of the immediate conditions of living of the migrant family? Has a survey been made concerning the extent to which our Mexican migratory children are American born? What provision is made for a house for the teacher in a migratory school where roads are impassable in wet weather? How can the board of trustees be convinced of the necessity for installing facilities for bathing? Should migratory children be segregated from the regular children of the district? Are teachers sufficiently conscious of health needs to give the instruction needed? How can food be secured for children who are obviously malnourished? Can some provision be made for the little child who is under school age and who is left neglected in the camp while the mother works in the field?

¹ This paper is presented in its entirety on pages 137-147.

During the conference a committee was appointed to draft a statement representing the recommendations of the conference. The following statement was submitted to the conference and unanimously approved as representing the opinion of the group assembled:

I. MINIMUM ACCEPTABLE STANDARDS FOR EMERGENCY SCHOOLS

1. All children between ages of eight and sixteen must be in attendance in accordance with the provision of the compulsory education law.
2. A safe, sanitary, and educationally serviceable school plant should be provided.
3. An adequate supply of pure water must be provided.
4. Transportation should be provided for children who reside more than two miles from a school house.
5. The length of the school day should be the same for the emergency situation as it is in the regular day school and should be standard for the whole district. Crop holidays for emergency schools should be discontinued.
5. The teacher-load should not be heavier in emergency schools than that which is standard in the regular schools of the vicinity, and in no case should the teacher-load exceed forty pupils.
7. The course of study should be adapted to the needs of the child without regard to the grade placement.
8. Suitable tables, chairs, and other school furniture together with adequate supplies and other materials of instruction should be provided. State approved emergency building plans should provide for black-board space, closed shelving, and supply cupboards. These plans should specify an adequate supply of toilet facilities.
9. The regular services of the county school library and the entire supervisory staff of the county school department should be furnished.

II. NEEDS RELATED TO THE EMERGENCY SCHOOL SITUATION

1. California should seek special federal appropriations for that portion of school costs which it bears by reason of the mobility of the seasonal workers who are not regular state residents.
2. The state should set up an equalization fund for relief to distressed districts which are affected by large migration of seasonal workers from other districts within the state.
3. Inasmuch as the education of children cannot progress unless their basic physical needs are met, adequate financial support should be given the present public state and county health, housing, and social agencies so that present laws can be adequately enforced.
4. State camping privileges should be regulated and confined to established areas.
5. Provision should be made for day nurseries and nursery school care for children below school age whose parents are engaged in agricultural labor.
6. Provision should be made to insure that labor camps shall have reasonable protection of law enforcement agencies.
7. The California State Department of Education should make an adequate survey of the migrant school population in California.

We respectfully submit the above points, convinced that they represent some of the thinking of this conference on important problems in regard to the education of the children of the seasonal workers.

MRS. A. M. DRURY, California Congress of Parents and Teachers.

MRS. WALTER A. KNAPP, California Congress of Parents and Teachers, Merced.

W. K. COBB, County Superintendent of Schools, Ventura County.

CHARLES BURSCH, Division of Schoolhouse Planning, State Department of Education, Sacramento.

LILLIAN B. HILL, Chief, Bureau of Attendance and Migratory Education, State Department of Education.

MRS. BRADLEY BROWN, California League of Women Voters, San Francisco.

LOUISE GIRRS HART (Mrs. F. W.), California League of Women Voters.

A. N. MARTENS, District Superintendent of Schools, Burrel District, Fresno County.

ALVIN E. RHODES, Rural Supervisor, San Luis Obispo County.

EMMETT CLARK, City Superintendent, Pomona.

ELLEN W. STADTMULLER, M.D., State Department of Public Health.

GLADYS L. POTTER, Assistant Chief, Division of Elementary Education, State Department of Education.

E. E. FRASHER, Assistant Superintendent of Schools Fresno County, *Chairman*

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EDITORIAL COMMENT AND NEWS NOTES

REPORT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE

The enthusiastic response of California elementary school principals and district superintendents to the first official call to a state-wide conference, which was held in Oakland, April 2-5, again indicated the splendid professional spirit of the group. The general sessions and section meetings from Sunday night to Wednesday afternoon were well attended. Principals, superintendents and board members have expressed their appreciation of the values received from the various presentations and discussions included in the program.

The council meeting on Treasure Island, the "fun night," and the N. E. A. breakfast were high points in the activities of the California Elementary School Principals' Association under the direction of President Gertrude Howard.

The morning program on April 3, planned in cooperation with the Northern Council for Exceptional Children, proved to be particularly profitable and interesting to the members of the conference.

We are confident that the high standard set by this first state-wide conference will be maintained and surpassed in the years to come because of the unfailing support, cooperation and participation of California elementary school principals in this undertaking to raise the principalship to its proper professional status.

For the benefit of those principals unable to attend the conference we are hoping to publish a number of the presentations in the *California Journal of Elementary Education*.

SUMMER SESSIONS AT THE STATE COLLEGES

A number of the state colleges have planned special features during the summer sessions that will be of particular interest to elementary school principals. A few are mentioned here. Catalogues containing complete information and data concerning tuition fees, living accommodations and the like may be secured by writing the director of the summer session at the respective colleges.

The summer session of Chico State College at Mount Shasta is to provide firsthand experiences for teachers in a study of the nature and significance of the Central Valley Water Project. Excursions will be supplemented by discussion and reading to build a background of information relative to the project. Several courses, as Curriculum Development, Elementary School Science, Fine Art, Social Studies and Industrial Arts will center about the Central Valley Water Project in an attempt to make these courses practical and specific.

A group of children in a one-teacher school will develop a curriculum unit on the project and provide an opportunity for classroom observation for students.

The Sierra Summer School, conducted by Fresno State College, will offer a six-weeks course again this year at Lakeshore, Huntington Lake, California. Seventy miles from Fresno in the high Sierra, at an altitude of 7,000 feet, this site is one of unusual beauty, giving unique opportunity for both recreation and study. A program of regular college and professional study courses has been prepared with special emphasis upon nature study work adapted to the high Sierra location.

The Humboldt State College will conduct several demonstration classrooms in both Eureka and Arcata during the six-week summer session, June 19 to July 28. These classrooms will provide an opportunity for teachers to observe progressive techniques in education applied to actual school situations.

The recreation program at Humboldt State College makes possible a combination of summer study and vacation.

San Diego State College offers two summer sessions, the first a six-week period from June 19 to July 28, and the second of three weeks from July 31 to August 19.

The first is a regular supplementary session for teachers who wish to add to their professional preparation. For the second session the College offers an opportunity for teachers to enroll in one course of three units credit during the three weeks. The purpose of this plan is to provide an opportunity for specialization since the student takes but the single offering.

San Francisco State College summer session provides opportunities to observe both graded and multigraded classrooms at the Frederic Burk School from June 19 to July 28. A music workshop where the work of talented children in various phases of instrumental music may be observed is another interesting feature of the summer plans. Instructors in courses in art, music, motion picture appreciation, physics and social science will use the grounds of The Golden Gate International Exposition as a laboratory.

The San Jose State College will return to its former plan of four one-week sessions this year for its West Coast School of Nature Study. The school will be conducted for one week each at Fallen Leaf Lodge in the Lake Tahoe region, June 18 to 24; Tamarack Lodge on Twin Lakes in the Mammoth Lake area, June 25 to July 1; and Giant Forest Lodge in Sequoia National Park, July 2 to 8, and July 9 to 15.

The West Coast School of Nature Study offers two quarter-units of college credit for each week of attendance, and features on-the-trail study with no competitive examinations or required notes. New courses added to the program for this year by popular request are ferns, mosses, and lichens; fungi, grasses, large mammals, rocks and minerals.

The courses make use of the publication series, Science Guide for Elementary Schools, published by the California State Department of Education.

Santa Barbara State College announces a summer session course in nature study for two weeks. In the Santa Barbara School of Nature Study instruction will be given out of doors and as informally as possible. It will consist largely of field exploration under competent guidance, supplemented by lectures, group discussions, and laboratory demonstrations.

Investigations will center about the Natural History Museum and Blaksley Botanic Garden, the foothills of the Santa Ynez Mountains, Los Padres National Forest, Laguna Blanca Bird Refuge, and the tide pools along the ocean shore.

Courses in astronomy and desert life will also be included.

RECENT YEARBOOKS OF INTEREST

A number of yearbooks from various national organizations have recently been received and should be familiar to the elementary school principal. For your information we are calling attention to some of these publications.

One of the most significant yearbooks from the point of view of its possible influence on classroom techniques is entitled *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher*.¹ This volume was a joint undertaking of two departments of the National Education Association, The American Educational Research Association and The Classroom Teachers, and has distinct usefulness for both groups. Teachers and principals will find here a summary of the results of educational research that has a bearing on classroom procedures and

¹ *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher*. Joint Yearbook of the American Educational Research Association and the Department of Classroom Teachers. Washington: National Education Association, 1939. Pp. 318.

the volume should enable them to examine and improve their practices in the light of relevant research. Research workers will be challenged by the lack of the availability of conclusive evidence in some instances. Sections relate to child development, schools and class organization, the language arts, social studies, mathematics, science, healthful living, and the arts. In each section the material is organized under a series of questions covering important phases of the topic upon which research has made significant contributions.

An effort has been made to eliminate technical terms in order to increase the usefulness of the yearbook.

The Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, *Cooperation: Principles and Practices*,¹ discusses cooperation not only as an essential element in the democratic process but as a social ideal, an end in itself, synonymous with socialization.

The committee has given a forceful and challenging discussion of the social implications of democratic cooperation as an ideal, and has assembled concrete suggestions and methods of implementing the ideal. Principals will wish to be familiar with this yearbook as an aid to furthering democratic procedures in the administration of schools.

The Thirty-eighth Yearbook, Part I, of the National Society for the Study of Education on *Child Development and the Curriculum*,² has been prepared by the Society's committee on maturity, and edited by Guy Montrose Whipple.

The Yearbook assembles within one cover the gist of what is known about the development of the child. The editor expresses the belief that "no one ought to be allowed to tinker with curriculum" until he has become familiar with the data contained in the Yearbook, which indicates at what period in a child's life "he can most advantageously undertake any given activity or achieve any given unit of learning."

The Seventeenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association entitled *Schools in Small Communities*³ is now available.

Half of the children and youth of America are attending schools in rural areas and it is significant that this Association should recognize this fact by publishing a yearbook relating specifically to school systems in communities having a population of 500 to 5,000.

¹ *Cooperation: Principles and Practices*. Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. Washington: National Education Association, 1938. Pp. x + 244.

² *Child Development and the Curriculum*. Thirty-eighth Yearbook, Part I, of the National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1939. Pp. x + 442.

³ *Schools in Small Communities*. Seventeenth Yearbook. American Association of School Administrators. Washington: National Education Association, February, 1939. Pp. 608.

Many teachers and executives have sought experience in small communities while yearning for the day when they would be called to larger school systems. Too frequently the small school system has been merely a steppingstone to positions where pay is higher. One of the announced purposes of this yearbook is to present the challenge to be found in school positions in small communities.

Principals in urban as well as rural and suburban areas of California will find this volume full of practical and helpful suggestions.

The 1939 Yearbook of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, *Community Resources in Rural Schools*,¹ is one which will be of immediate use to principals and to classroom teachers. The ways in which the community resources may be developed and used are set forth directly and practically. Cooperative community activities undertaken in various parts of the country have been recounted. The description of a curriculum evolved in a community school serving a Spanish-speaking group will be of interest to many California teachers. An excellent evaluation of the educational movement to integrate the school and the community has been presented by Dr. Fannie Dunn in the closing chapter of the Yearbook.

KNOW YOUR SCHOOL

The United States Office of Education has recently prepared a series of study outlines dealing with educational problems under the general heading, *Know Your Schools*, for the use of community groups. The topics covered in each of the four leaflets now available are:

Know Your Board of Education, Office of Education Leaflet No. 47, 1939

Know Your Superintendent, Office of Education Leaflet No. 48, 1939

Know Your School Principal, Office of Education Leaflet No. 49, 1939

Know Your Teacher, Office of Education Leaflet No. 50, 1939

Copies may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. The price is five cents.

Other outlines in the series will appear from time to time.

SCHOOL FILMS

The Association of School Film Libraries announces the completion of an arrangement whereby the motion pictures being sold

¹ *Community Resources in Rural Schools*. Yearbook 1939. The Department of Rural Education. Washington: National Education Association, 1939.

by Walter O. Gutlohn of New York may be bought by the Association's \$25 members at 10 per cent less than the regular prices.

Seven reels of the wildlife series, *Struggle to Live*, are available in 16 mm. as follows:

- Neptune's Mysteries (deep sea life)
- Hermits of Crabland (types of crabs)
- Beach Masters (Pacific Ocean seal)
- Winged Pageantry (wild birds)
- Underground Farmers (ants)
- Living Jewels (microscopic life in sea surf)
- Swampland (wild life in United States swamps)

Of the Strand instructionals from England the following are available:

Five Faces, a survey of the Malay Peninsula and the five different races which live there in peace and harmony (3 reels)

Fingers and Thumbs, development of man's fingers and thumbs from lower forms of life, through all stages to present perfection (2 reels)

Today We Live, Paul Rotha's film document of England's efforts to help the unemployed and needy of her towns and villages (2 reels)

Zoo Babies, the upbringing of young things from tiny tadpoles and fish to the highest type, the human baby (2 reels)

Persons wishing to purchase Gutlohn prints, or secure them for preview, or to secure catalogues, should write to the office of the Association, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y.

SAFETY AND SAFETY EDUCATION

A new pamphlet entitled *Safety and Safety Education: An Annotated Bibliography*, prepared by the Safety Education Projects of the Research Division, has recently been published by the National Education Association. The information contained in this bibliography supplements the materials presented in *Safety Education Through Schools*, Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVI, No. 5, November, 1938, which listed safety films and slides and their sources, agencies supplying aids to safety instruction, and state courses of study.

Part I of the present publication lists books, pamphlets, and bulletins; and Part II lists magazine articles on safety appearing in periodicals during the years 1936-1938, inclusive.

For a number of years safety instruction has had a recognized place in the schools. The result has been fewer injuries and deaths

among children. Today the need is to extend the successful experience of certain communities to all urban and rural school systems. This publication will meet a definite need among the workers in the schools of the country.

UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION PUBLICATIONS

Elementary school principals will be interested in United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education publications, *The Elementary School Principalship*, Bulletin 1938 No. 8 (10 cents), and *A Survey of Courses of Study and Other Curriculum Materials Published Since 1934*, Bulletin 1937 No. 31 (20 cents).

The Office of Education points out that there are 21,000 elementary school principals in the United States, and that two-thirds of them are women. The report on courses of study and other curriculum materials lists more than 1,600 courses of study, units of work, book lists, handbooks, teachers' work reports, monographs, and bulletins.

INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Superintendent of Public Instruction Eugene B. Elliott of Michigan has recently released the fourth bulletin of the Curriculum Steering Committee under the title *Instructional Practices in Elementary Schools*, Bulletin No. 306. Following introductory chapters on educational philosophy and the evaluation of curriculum units there is presented a series of brief reports of learning experiences written by classroom teachers.

The final chapter of the publication is devoted to administrative practices directly related to instruction. The descriptions of practice are introduced with the statement:

The primary purpose of all school administration is to bring about the most favorable conditions possible for insuring effective instruction.

Descriptions of administrative practices relative to social maturity groupings, the guidance program, opportunity classes, student organizations, articulation, home-school-community relationships follow.

In a selected annotated bibliography of twenty-two titles three California State Department of Education publications are included:

Community Life in the Harbor

Teachers' Guide to Child Development, Manual for Kindergarten and Primary Teachers

Teachers' Guide to Child Development in the Intermediate Grades

The Michigan bulletin will be of interest to curriculum committees at work in California cities and counties. It may be secured from Superintendent of Public Instruction Eugene B. Elliott, Lansing, Michigan.

GOLDEN GATE EXPOSITION SCHOOL TOURS

Reduced rate tours to the Golden Gate International Exposition, for children and their sponsors, are of interest to administrators.

The Board of Management of the San Francisco Bay Exposition has adopted a policy which provides admission for supervised groups of students to the Exposition grounds on school days during the school term at the following admission rates:

Children up to and including 12 years of age, 10 cents;

Children over 12 years of age and up to and including high school grades, 25 cents.

The state has been divided into sixteen areas, according to average daily attendance and distance from the Exposition. The Exposition School Tours are scheduled for April 2 through May 31, and each area has an allotted number of days for attendance.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction has presented the following regulations relative to attendance of public school pupils at the Exposition:

The governing board of any school district may authorize the attendance of pupils upon the Golden Gate International Exposition to be counted as a part of the regular instructional program of the school district. When such attendance is so authorized, time spent by the pupils while participating in an educational activity approved by the Director of Educational Exhibits of the Exposition or in a tour of the Exposition exhibits, including time spent while traveling from the school district to the Exposition and back, may be counted as attendance at school in the same manner as other attendance of such pupils is counted.

There are one-day, two-day, and three-day Exposition School Tours. Accredited adults, teachers and parents must accompany students in ratio of one adult, minimum to 20 students—a ratio of one adult, maximum, to 10 students is allowed, and these adult sponsors may secure School Tour ticket books at the student rate. Tours include Exposition admissions, educational tours of exhibits, meals, lodging and admissions to approved entertainment.

There will be ample time for additional sight-seeing after the guided tours and attractions covered by the School Tour Books, so

that each group may have a well-rounded inspirational and educational trip.

Special transportation rates by way of rail or stage line are available for School Tour groups. In some cases these are as low as three-fourth cents a mile. Local agents should be consulted about rates.

Those coming by train or stage will need approximately thirty cents a day additional for ferry and streetcar fares. Those coming by school bus will pay a round-trip toll on the San Francisco-Oakland Bay Bridge of 75 cents for bus and driver, and 5 cents for each additional passenger. A charge of \$1.00 will be made for parking bus in the parking area.

Additional information may be obtained from The Exposition School Tour Division, Treasure Island, California.

SPECIAL PAN AMERICAN NUMBER OF STORY PARADE

The recent keen interest of government and business in the relations of the United States with South America emphasizes again the need of promoting mutual knowledge and understanding between the Americas. Good material on South America for the elementary grades has, however, always been scarce.

Story Parade (70 Fifth Avenue, New York), published a special Pan American issue on April 1. There is a jai-alai cover by Kurt Wiese and stories, articles, verses, games, a section on Peruvian crafts, and examples of children's work of special merit from South America and also from schools studying the countries of Latin America here. A picture page with text in easy Spanish describes rural life there. The fiction includes "Ten Thousand Llamas," by Alida Malkus, and "A Yankee Captain in Patagonia," by Charles J. Finger. Both of these authors spent many years on that continent and can be relied on for authentic background as well as fascinating stories.

Other materials useful to the teacher may be obtained through the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

KODACHROME SLIDE SERVICE

A Kodachrome (natural color) slide service is being offered to the public schools of the state at cost price. This service is one of the nonprofit activities of the Friends of the Western Mountains, Arcata, California, an organization whose object is to stimulate a greater interest in and appreciation of the scenery and natural history of the western mountains. The organization is interested entirely in improving the quality of appreciation rather than in increasing the quantity of visitors to the mountain resorts.

Kodachrome slides are made from 35 millimeter Kodachrome films, mounted between 2 by 2 cover glasses. Although they are best projected in special 2 by 2 projectors, they may also be used in a $3\frac{1}{4}$ by 4 projector with the aid of an inexpensive adapter. At a distance of 20 feet the images fill a 4 by 5 foot screen. Individual viewers which magnify the image and give a certain third-dimensional effect, much like that of a stereoscope, are also available at reasonable prices.

SACRAMENTO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

Every school system undertaking a coordinated curriculum program throughout the entire organization will be interested in a recent mimeographed bulletin issued by Leo B. Baisden, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Curriculum Development and Organization, Sacramento Public Schools.

In the foreword, Mr. Baisden says:

Sacramento has utilized the cooperative plan of curriculum development for so many years that little need be said regarding the procedures involved. While the work of developing courses of study and curricular materials is assigned to committees, the program of curriculum development embraces the entire teaching corps. Each teacher is inevitably a curriculum builder, since what is taught, the way it is taught, the way the classroom is organized from day to day constitutes the living curriculum, regardless of what may be printed in the courses of study. The function of the committees is to bring into form the total result of the thinking of all teachers in the school system relative to the problems involved. In its broader aspect, the task involves not merely the thinking of teachers, but of parent-teacher groups and other laymen in order that the curriculum may represent a true cross section of the best thinking in the community.

The bulletin shows the personnel of each elementary, junior high, and senior high school curriculum committee. In addition the functions of each committee are clearly and succinctly stated.

The importance of the work of the coordinating committees is definitely recognized. The Curriculum Survey and Coordinating Committee serves to determine curriculum work to be undertaken, to prevent undesirable duplications in different levels, to improve coordination, and to determine the basic pattern of learning experiences throughout the school program. Curriculum advisory committees are provided for each level to serve as a consulting and coordinating group, to aid in determining the educational philosophy and to suggest ways of putting new courses of study into operation. Curriculum Coordinating Conference Committees have been set up in English, foreign language, mathematics, safety education, social

studies, and science. These committees function as groups "having an over-view of the course of study in a particular field from the elementary grades through the high school."

The organization for curriculum activities in Sacramento will not only be of interest to other city schools but should afford a wealth of suggestions to curriculum coordinators undertaking the work of articulating the educational program in county schools.

The subjects offered are trees and flowers of the mountain regions and scenery of the western mountains and the national parks, including glaciers, iceberg lakes, boiling mud pots, and hot springs.

C. Edward Graves as secretary of the Friends of the Western Mountains is offering to cooperate with school systems by making collections of scenic slides on desired subjects. For further information principals and superintendents are requested to communicate with Mr. Graves in Arcata.

A CURRICULUM UNIT IN FOREST CONSERVATION FOR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

The Forest Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, under the direction of W. P. Beard, Educational Specialist, and D. Priscilla Edgerton, Education Assistant, has prepared *Living in Forest Lands* for distribution to curriculum committees and educators interested in junior high school curriculum revision. This is the first of a series of four units that will constitute "A Forest Conservation Handbook" for the junior high school.

While copies of *Living in Forest Lands* are limited, the Forest Service grants permission to schools and curriculum committees to reproduce or otherwise use this material as may suit their needs. Requests should be addressed to W. I. Hutchinson, Assistant Regional Forester, 760 Market Street, San Francisco.

MARCH OF TIME SUBJECTS AVAILABLE FOR SCHOOLS

Arrangements with *The March of Time* for the release of 16 mm sound prints of a selected series of their subjects for educational use in schools and colleges has been announced by the Association of School Film Libraries, a nonprofit, cooperative association established in the summer of 1938, with the financial backing of the General Education Board. Its purpose is to organize schools and colleges as a potential motion picture audience, as well as to encourage and promote the use of films as an educational medium.

Prints of *The March of Time* to be made available for school and college use were selected according to a preference vote among recognized authorities on the educational value of motion pictures.

The films may be purchased through the Association of School Film Libraries, at 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City. They are also available at the libraries of the Department of Visual Instruction, Extension Division, 301 California Hall, University of California, Berkeley; and 815 South Hill Street, Los Angeles.

SCHOOL EXECUTIVES' CONFERENCE TO BE HELD AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA SUMMER SESSION, BERKELEY

The Ninth Annual School Executives' Conference, under the auspices of the Summer Session of the University of California at Berkeley, will be held this year, July 10 to July 21. Previous conferences have been full-day sessions, but this year, on account of The Golden Gate International Exposition on Treasure Island, the conference sessions will be held during the mornings only, leaving afternoons and evenings free for those who may wish to see the Exposition and study the educational exhibits of many lands. Persons interested, may secure further information by writing to Professor F. W. Hart, University of California, Berkeley, California.

COLLEGE EXTENSION COURSES TO BE OFFERED ON EDUCATION CRUISE

College extension courses for college, graduate, or teaching credit will be offered on the S. S. Rotterdam, on its fifty-three-day cruise in connection with the Eighth Biennial Congress of the World Federation of Education Associations in Rio de Janeiro, August 6 to 11.

The courses will be conducted under the auspices of Clark and Indiana universities. Inquiries regarding these courses, and all inquiries regarding the meetings of the Congress and the itinerary of the Rotterdam, should be addressed to the headquarters of the World Federation of Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

COURSES FOR TEACHERS OF SIGHT-SAVING CLASSES

Several institutions of higher learning in the United States, including the University of California at Los Angeles, are offering summer session courses for the preparation of teachers and supervisors in sight-saving classes. The National Society for the Prevention of Blindness is cooperating with the following colleges and universities in offering these courses:

Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio, June 19 to July 28.

State Teachers College, Buffalo, New York, June 26 to August 4 (dates tentative).

State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, June 26 to August 4.

University of California, Los Angeles, California, June 26 to August 4.

Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan, June 26 to August 4 (elementary and advanced courses).

INDIAN SERVICE SUMMER SESSIONS

The United States Indian Office is planning to conduct two summer sessions this year designed to give practical help to teachers who work in schools attended by Indians. These sessions will be held at Pine Ridge, South Dakota, from June 5 to June 30, and at Fort Wingate, New Mexico, from July 5 to August 2. A number of teachers from the public schools of California attended the Indian Service summer session held at Sherman Institute, Riverside, California, during the summer of 1938 and have expressed their appreciation of the help which they received. These summer sessions are open to anyone who is interested in Indian education. Further details and a catalogue may be secured by writing to the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, Washington, D. C., attention Mr. Homer H. Howard.

JUNIOR AUDUBON MEMBERSHIP

The National Association of Audubon Societies again offers membership privileges to boys and girls of school age. Groups of at least ten children each may form Junior Audubon clubs.

Every member receives an attractive bird button and six four-page leaflets with color plate and outline drawing to be filled in.

All clubs get *News on the Wing*, the Junior Audubon Clubs' own newspaper. In addition, clubs of twenty-five or more members receive during the school year, a free subscription to *Bird-Lore*, the official bimonthly publication of the National Association of Audubon Societies. Membership in the Junior Audubon Clubs costs each child only ten cents a year.

Teachers and leaders may obtain educational pamphlets, charts, books, slides, and motion pictures dealing with birds and animals and the conservation of our country's natural resources. Price lists will be sent on request to the National Association of Audubon Societies, 1006 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

ANTHROPOLOGY, DEMOCRACY, AND THE SCHOOL

MORRIS EDWARD OPLER, *Assistant Professor of Anthropology,
Claremont Colleges*

We live in a day when lunatic and amoral usurpers of power are exploiting the ignorance of anthropology of great masses of people. In order to foster windy arrogance and to further programs of aggression, controlled schools, presses, and radios have assured certain populations that they are physically, morally, and mentally superior to other groups of mankind, that their contributions to world culture are pre-eminent, and that their political domination must be accomplished, no matter what the cost in slaughter, sacrifice, and misery may be.

The most potent antidote for extravagant claims on behalf of particular groups is some knowledge of the development of cultures and peoples the world over. The discipline which devotes itself to the gathering, classification, and interpretation of such material is anthropology, the scientific study of man.

Anthropology is the youngest of the social sciences, and some persons may wonder why it was the last of these associated fields to emerge. The reason is that for many years man was reluctant to view himself as a part of the natural order of things and a fit object of study. Conviction, alas, does not wait upon a sufficient and controlled knowledge. All of us have noted how, time and again, individuals whose store of actual fact is most meager, are not at all backward in voicing opinion and generalization. Long before scientific techniques had been perfected and the requisite data accumulated, myth, dogma, wishful thinking, and opinion had crystalized concerning the heavenly bodies, the inanimate world, plant life, animal life other than man, and humanity. Slowly and not without struggle the quest for verified fact and scientific truth has compelled a re-examination of theory and subject matter in respect to the universe and the objects, animate and inanimate, about us. The results of such inquiries fill our school books. Teachers accept as commonplace and communicate to their charges today, notions concerning our planet and concerning animal life which would have brought them persecution and even death a few centuries ago. But it was only yesterday, historically speaking, that the objective and scientific study of man came into good repute. Almost to the threshold of the present it was held that revealed religion gave a full and sufficient account of

man's origin, history, and destiny, and that to inquire further or to come to unsanctified conclusions would be impious.

What does the study of anthropology include that may be important for our schools and our times? The study of man, as the anthropologist sees it, falls naturally into four great divisions, divisions which define the truly unique and differentiating qualities of our species and which may be examined soberly and scientifically in the spirit of scholarship.

The first branch or field of the study of man is *physical anthropology* or human biology. In it are brought together the data relative to the physical emergence and differentiation of man. We all carry with us, as part of our mental baggage, premises concerning physical anthropology. Often they are hidden or unconscious premises. The racist, the person who believes that those of a physical type which varies from his own are "inferior" or must "be kept in their places" or who applauds the idea that representatives of any one physical type should rule the world, is positing, whether he is cognizant of it or not, that mankind is not a biological unit, largely speaking, and that the bodily differences which exist among men are fundamental and are correlated with psychological, moral, and cultural attainments and potentialities. Would it not be wholesome, amid this chorus of emotionally charged claims and counter-claims, to have teachers (and derivatively students) who know what the best anthropological opinion is concerning the unity or diversity of man, the importance or unimportance of differences in respect to specific physical traits, the true state of our knowledge about mental and psychological differences between races? Instead, at this critical time in the relations of peoples we must intrust our youth to teachers who talk of "the French race," a confusion of nationality and race, "the Latin race," a confusion of language and race, "the Jewish race," a confusion of religion and race, and "the Aryan race," a confusion of a mythological people with a hypothetical tongue!

Man is unique among animals for certain physical characteristics—upright posture, size and complexity of the brain, the freeing of the forelimbs for manipulation, the development of the opposable thumb, and other traits of interest and importance. A consideration of these belongs to the domain of physical anthropology.

Correlated in all likelihood with the growth of the manipulative functions and the concomitant development of association areas of the brain, is language, an elaborate system of communication by means of arbitrarily assigned symbols. So basic is language to an understanding of man's symbolic expression, his systems of logic and categories of thought, that primitive *linguistics*, the recording and analyzation of

the languages of preliterate peoples, has taken its place as one of the special fields. Because of this interest the mythologies and traditions of scores of peoples have been saved, and a huge storehouse of man's reflections and rationalizations has been preserved for the psychologist and philosopher.

Not long ago we were prone to think that our own tongue and those closely related to it were somehow more delicate and logical media of expression than those languages about which we still knew little. Now we are not so sure. Anthropologists who specialize in linguistics have learned that the languages they record have their complexities, their subtleties, their precisions, and their beauties as well. Linguistics has taught us a humility that comes with knowing that man's good intentions, uttered equally well in many tongues, have uniformly outstripped his performance.

Man is a tool-making and culture-building animal. The results of his handiwork and the story of his material development are buried in the superimposed strata of the earth's crust. To probe the river bed, the cave, the quarry, the dry lake bottom, or any place that gives evidence of man's former occupancy and to piece together the story of the growth of culture and civilization, is the task of *archeology*, the third great field of anthropology. It is in the findings of archeology that the sentient and intelligent individual discovers his debt, not to a few self-appointed "leaders" and "superiors," but to a million years of humanity, to those peoples of divers physical types in all quarters of the globe who faced the future with little save the rocks and sticks they could pick up and who laboriously, through the ages, by invention and discovery, added to the base of possessions and achievements which made possible our creature comforts of today.

The anthropologist is as much concerned with the contemporary peoples of the world as he is with the past. He does not confine his attention to our own Western culture, which he views dispassionately as one possible way of life, and neither the beginning nor the end of the human quest. In fact, he makes the carriers of other cultures than our own, particularly the representatives of preliterate cultures, the focus of his inquiries. This interest in the total range of human behavior and human adjustment, in the institutions, codes, beliefs, and philosophies of mankind in the broadest sense, is what the student of man calls *social or cultural anthropology*.

No one who has been seriously touched by social anthropology can be moved, except to laughter or tears, by the grandiose claims and constricted values of those who would divide humanity into the sheep and the goats today. Social anthropology, on the teaching level, is an inseparable adjunct to the democratic ideal, for it presupposes an

honest and unbiased interest in man as such, a wholesome respect for the human spirit and personality everywhere, an appreciation and recognition of human achievement no matter where or by whom made, and a tolerance of human differences which should be the mark of the educated man.

A recognition of the importance of anthropology is growing and there are increasing attempts, especially in the social studies, to introduce its materials into the classroom. That some of these attempts are successful and informative, I have no doubt. I am just as sure that a good many others are abortive and unfortunate.

I should like to emphasize my conviction that the injection of anthropological materials into the classroom is needed as never before. But it should be done by those who have had some opportunity to take courses in anthropology and have become well versed in its fundamentals. A hasty reading of *The Outline of History* does not qualify a teacher to deal with anthropological materials any more than making change at the corner grocery qualifies an individual to teach mathematics. But, whatever their personal desires, teachers can be well informed in anthropology only when the institutions where they receive their training include anthropological courses in the curricula. In view of the relevance of anthropology to our problems and our times it is to be hoped that it will be introduced soon into settings where it is still considered a hobby rather than a subject.

UPON WHAT BASES CAN THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL EVALUATE HIS SCHOOL?¹

IRWIN O. ADDICOTT, *Director of Curriculum and Instruction,
Fresno Public Schools*

Roots which are diseased produce weak and unhealthy limbs, leaves, and fruit. Elementary education, as the rootstock of our school system, must be maintained in a healthy and vigorous state. It must tolerate no "dead wood" or "diseased" conditions which may retard its growth and defeat its purposes.

The horticulturist is constantly studying his orchard. He is looking for ways to test the effectiveness of his efforts. In like manner the elementary school principal must be continually evaluating the program of his school. He must continually search for better ways of guiding the growth of the boys and girls. Continuous, critical, evaluation is essential to healthy and vigorous functioning of elementary education.

The elementary principal in judging the work of his school should not confuse evaluation with measurement. Measurement has to do with quantity and number, while evaluation, on the other hand, is concerned with values, with purpose, with the quality of results.

Probably a careful, subjective judgment of the program and procedure of the school, in the light of such accepted criteria, is to be preferred over conclusions based upon objective data which may have been secured through ill-conceived or poorly executed experiments.

California elementary school principals have a unique responsibility to the profession throughout the nation. Such leadership carries a responsibility in addition to occupying the spotlight. This responsibility is the obligation to furnish convincing evidence that what is being done in our schools is worth while and effective in terms of the results achieved in the lives of boys and girls. A program of careful evaluation within each local school is the only answer to this challenge and this need.

The evaluation of the program of any school should be based upon a carefully conceived set of objectives. These should be used by a principal and his staff not only to guide their activities but also as the *bases* upon which that program may be evaluated. Therefore, perhaps the most important task facing the principal is the development of such a set of objectives. Unless the principal knows

¹ Address given at the State-wide Conference of Elementary School Principals and District Superintendents, Hotel Oakland, April 5, 1939.

where he is going, he cannot ask his staff or his community to follow him in his position as leader. He must plan his work, work his plan, and evaluate the results in terms of the objectives which have been set.

Evaluation depends upon planning and organization. One cannot tell whether he is traveling in the direction in which he hopes to move unless he knows the direction in which he intended to move in the first place. The principal, in order to evaluate, must think through a plan. He must ascertain what the purposes he serves are, or should be. He must develop in as concise and definite form as possible the bases upon which an ideal yet practical program may be built. He must then make use of these bases in constantly evaluating the program of his school. Such a formulation in the last analysis becomes a statement of the characteristics of a dynamic program of elementary education, the general trends of which are in harmony with the accepted point of view of a school system, county, or city, but the details of which fit the needs of a particular situation.

Granted that planning is essential and that the principal is willing and anxious to develop with his staff a set of criteria by means of which he may evaluate his program, it becomes essential that he shall develop statements of the characteristics of a program of modern elementary education. The following seem to represent some of the major characteristics of a dynamic program of elementary education which might be used by the principal as bases for evaluating his program.

BASE 1. *The Program of the School Is Based Upon a Statement of Purposes (or, if You Prefer, a Philosophy of Education) Which Is Briefly Yet Clearly Formulated. This Statement Is Understood and Accepted by the Entire Teaching Staff.* Such a statement, if it is to be accepted and used by a staff, must have been cooperatively developed by them. It may have been developed for an entire system. If possible, it should be couched in simple terms. If such is the case, teachers are likely to make use of it not only in guiding their work but in interpreting that work to parents and laymen within the community. Such a philosophy is basic to unity of purpose and program within a school. Is there a brief, understandable, cooperatively developed statement of purposes available as a guide to the work of your staff?

BASE 2. *The Objectives of the School Have Been Developed Cooperatively, and Are Actually Used by Teachers and Principals Alike in Guiding Instruction and in Evaluating Results.* It is not essential that each staff formulate a set of objectives of elementary education which is worded entirely differently from that to be found in any other school system. It is entirely possible that, after studying the matter, a

staff may decide to adopt a given set of objectives as their own. Many schools in California, having studied and formulated statements of objectives, have finally decided to make use of the statement of objectives formulated and published by the California State Department of Education. It is brief, comprehensive, and uninvolved. The form of the statement is not the heart of the matter. The important thing is that a principal and his staff shall have thought through their objectives, shall have worked out a definite statement of them, and shall have made use of them in guiding and in judging the work of the institution.

In addition to a statement of "long-term" objectives, the principal and his staff should develop immediate, specific objectives covering a period of not to exceed a year. These will vary from year to year and from school to school and, perhaps, from level to level. It is far more probable, however, that such objectives will be achieved if formulated and definitely stated than if they are only held in the background of the thinking of the principal.

The importance of cooperative development of such objectives by the entire staff cannot be overemphasized. The day of the principal who does the entire formulating of objectives for his school and who hands them down to his teachers is, we hope, passed in the State of California. Is there a set of objectives available in your school as a guide for teachers, as they teach, and as a set of criteria to be used in evaluating progress made?

BASE 3. *The Program of the School Is Organized in Terms of Concern for the Development of Integrated Personalities.* The mental hygiene of the children within the school is considered to be extremely important. The teaching of the common tools of learning and the passing on of the cultural heritage are no less important a part of the work of the modern elementary school than they were in the schools of yesterday; however, they are thought of no longer as ends in themselves, but as means toward the end of developing the total personalities of boys and girls.

In order that this characteristic of a modern program of elementary education may become a reality in our schools, principals must come to visualize the guidance program as a part of the duty of every teacher on the staff and not simply the problem of the principal and the special guidance workers from central offices. The development of proper mental attitudes as well as other phases of the program is considered a part of the program of every teacher. Does the school organize its program in terms of equal emphasis upon all phases of child development?

BASE 4. *The Curriculum (or, if You Prefer, the Learning Situation) Is Organized in Terms of Activities or Experiences Which Are Purposeful, and, Therefore Meaningful, to Children.* We use the term "activities" because activity is normal to childhood. With children, interest centers largely in doing, and interest is the key to effort. The essential feature of such a curriculum becomes purposeful, self-effort on the part of the child involving group enterprise, learning through actual experience, the use of research techniques, and as great a variety of approaches in securing insights and understandings as is possible. It involves individual as well as group enterprise, the building of social sensitivity, and practice on the part of children in both leading and following.

The securing of meaningful insights and understandings that will be guides to intelligent action are the ends which we are seeking, and purposeless effort does not build these desirable outcomes. Purposeful activities assist the child to see relationships because the end toward which he is working is meaningful to him. So much of the old in elementary education was purposeless to the child. It was taken for granted that learnings would take place without their meanings being evident to him.

Today, we know that the memoriter process may lead to learnings but that such learnings may be partial and fragmentary. As Prescott aptly says: "We have too long forgotten that knowledge and skill have no value or meaning except in terms of the purpose for which they are used. We must not fail to provide this integrative core, of a purpose about which to bind knowledge and skill into smoothly functioning, self-directing units in the curricula of our schools."¹

The principal who fails to provide a program which is purposeful to children has fallen short of living up to one of the criteria which is absolutely essential if his school is to be really effective.

These curricular experiences, further, are based upon the experiential background of children. Their choice and placement are suited to the varying maturation levels of the group and individuals which a given school happens to serve. There is no excuse with the present freedom allowed by state and local authorities for the principal or teacher to slavishly follow a program, which does not meet the varying needs of individuals and groups within a given school, simply because it is set down on paper.

From the standpoint of the practical administrator and teacher this matter of recognizing the maturation level as one of the most

¹ A quotation from notes on an unpublished lecture by Dr. Daniel Prescott at The University of California during the summer of 1937.

important factors in the learning process is probably to answer in the affirmative the following question: Is this child, or group of children, old enough mentally, emotionally, and physically to derive maximum benefit from this particular experience? The more intelligent placement of curricular experiences awaits a thorough acceptance on the part of elementary teachers and principals of the principle of individual differences. Only if this principle is thoroughly understood and adhered to can the principal feel that his school is measuring up to an acceptable standard.

Does the school provide learning experiences organized in terms of children's purposeful activities and based upon previous experiential backgrounds of the children served?

BASE 5. *The Course of Study of the School is Organized in Terms of Patterns or Strands Which, Within Broad Limits, Allow Wide Teacher Freedom to Plan the Learning Experiences of Her Group in Terms of Their Needs, Interests, and Purposes.* Such courses of study should be brief enough so that teachers will actually use them. The writer is convinced that relatively brief or charted representations of the breadth and direction of various phases of the learning processes, are appreciated and used by teachers. Long and involved courses of study are not so appreciated and used.

Each teacher should be free to plan the curriculum for her particular group in terms of their needs and interests so long as the broad needs of society are met. The course of study should be used by the teacher as a reference book, as an encyclopedia, if you please, of methods and means and materials from which she chooses as she plans those which are apropos to her particular situation.

Does your school provide courses of study cooperatively developed, brief and useful, which allow wide teacher freedom to plan in terms of the needs of her group?

BASE 6. *The Administration of the School is Organized in Terms of Improving the Learning Situation Rather Than in Terms of Business Efficiency.* Principals are likely to become *intrigued* with the machinery of providing a smooth-running organization which allows them (the principals) a relative amount of freedom.

The importance of routine factors in administration, such as well-kept records and reports, schedules, must be recognized. These essential aids to the learning process must be provided. They should be well organized and effectively administered, for good administration precedes good supervision. But they should never be allowed to assume the importance of ends. Any administrative detail within a school must be checked against this criterion: "Does it actually facilitate the learning process within my school?"

Too many principals, even in this day and age, become so enamored of the phase of the work which makes them "glorified clerks" that they fail to see the effect of added administrative routine upon the teaching and learning situation in the classroom. Some principals keep their teachers so busy with administrative routine, with interruptions, with announcements in the middle of the lesson over the local loud-speaking system in order that the principal may be saved a few steps, that the teacher may be unable to do effective teaching.

All administration is a means toward the end of better teaching and learning.

Does the administration of your school in all its details actually further the learning process?

BASE 7. *There is Provision for a Definite Program of Supervision in Each School.* No school is too small nor too large for the principal to help the teachers to locate and to solve their teaching problems. Principals must have a definite plan of supervision for their schools. That plan need not be limited—nay, should not be limited—simply to classroom visitation. The principal should take a wider view of the problem. Supervision, the speaker likes to think of as anything which the principal does to stimulate pupil growth to the maximum. It, therefore, includes more than has been traditionally thought of as supervision.

Furthermore, supervision should be a cooperative activity in which together the teacher and the principal—as both have the same aims in mind—attempt to set up situations in which learning will be stimulated to the maximum. It, therefore, includes not only what has been traditionally thought of as supervision, but anything the principal can do to improve the learning situation outside as well as inside the classroom.

Certainly the way a school's playgrounds, pupil governments, and other socializing experiences are organized affects the learnings of a child quite as much or more than instruction in the classroom. Anything the principal can do to improve the environment in which pupils live and learn is supervision of an indirect type.

The "direct" phase of supervision, on the other hand, is any activity on the part of the principal by means of which he helps his teachers locate and solve their problems. We have passed the point, I hope, in which we as principals may feel that we can and should solve the teacher's problems for her. We truly accept solutions to problems which have been worked out only by ourselves.

Just because a given supervisory technique is effective with a certain principal is no reason why it should be used by all principals in

all situations. Use any and all techniques which you find particularly effective.

Is there provision for a definite, well-organized program of supervision in your school?

BASE 8. *There Is Evidence of Wide School Use of the Values Inherent in Community Life and a Recognition of the Educative Effect of the Impact of Total Community Life on the Child.* Many schools are realizing that the ongoing life of the community which surrounds the child has a very definite effect upon his development.

The gross impact of a community upon the child does not leave room for selection except in so far as the home makes such selection. The school, however, is in a position to select from the vast range of environmental materials those which will lead best toward the achievement of the purposes of modern education. School after school has been making surveys regarding such educative values in its local community environment and has been organizing programs definitely formulated to make the best use of such opportunities.

Has your staff surveyed the possibilities of community contacts as curricular materials and planned a program which will make use of them to the greatest benefit of the child?

BASE 9. *A Wide Range of Modern Materials of Instruction and Teaching Aids Are Readily Available to Teachers When Needed.* These should include the type of materials which are as yet rather infrequently found within the schools, but which are used so effectively by agencies other than the schools in effecting learnings in children outside the classroom walls. The radio, the newspaper, the magazine, exhibits, visual aids of all kinds, the excursion, should all be used as means toward the development of insights and understanding regarding the world of today and our cultural heritage.

Does your school provide a wide range of modern materials of instruction? Are they readily available for teachers' use?

BASE 10. *Every Possible Effort Has Been Made to Make the Entire School Plant and Equipment Serve the Needs of a Well-rounded Program of Elementary Education.* That unused classroom has been turned into a lunchroom, a visual education center, or a library. A corner of the hallway is used for a science exhibit. The auditorium, if the school is blessed with one, is scheduled and used every hour of the day. The school grounds are laid out, particularly if crowded, with a view toward the maximum use of space. The entire school building is considered to be a busy workshop, which children use rather than a tomblike monument to community pride.

Are your building and equipment efficiently used to the maximum?

BASE 11. *There is a Well-planned Program for Keeping the Public Informed Regarding the Purpose and Procedures of the School.* The principal and his staff make use of the school newspaper, of community nights, of education week, of parent-teacher organizations, of conferences between parents and teachers to explain to the parents and patrons of the district the purposes and procedures of the school. Schools cannot long continue practices which the public does not understand or with which it does not sympathize. We cannot move ahead too rapidly or we shall strike rocks ahead. The public which supports education has a right to be kept informed regarding the purposes and procedures which we use in the schools, for society has formed these schools to perpetuate and recreate itself.

Is there evidence of a well-planned program of public relations in your school?

BASE 12. *There Is Close Cooperation Between the Homes of the District and the School in the Interest of Child Welfare.* Parents are made to feel at home when they visit the school. Teachers frequently visit the homes when such visits will prove beneficial to children. Parents assist the schools in the development of children. They are kept informed regarding the progress of children in school. Parents report to school and the school reports to parents, items which will be of mutual benefit to both, through conferences, through forms, through notes, through any agency which will assist in a cooperative attack upon the problem of developing boys and girls.

Are the homes in your school district intelligently cooperating with your staff?

BASE 13. *The Principal and His Staff Have Developed a Plan for Continuously Evaluating Their Efforts.* This plan will undoubtedly include a number of different elements: a set of objectives for the school which can be used as a checklist to judge the progress the school is making; a sensible program of testing, especially diagnostic and remedial testing, but including also achievement testing. It is not so much a matter of the form of such a plan of evaluation or the means used that is necessary or essential, but the fact that the principal and his staff recognize the need for evaluation and are continuously attempting to judge their efforts in terms of an ideal which they have set up for themselves.

CONCLUSION

It is the belief of the writer that McGaughy is correct when he says:

The evaluation of the elementary school program will be carried on by this same group of teachers, children, parents, and other laymen. It will

be continuous and it will be the basis for continual changing and readjusting of the total school program. This evaluation will be based upon the subjective judgment of these persons who are competent to draw conclusions because they are close to community problems and know the individual children and their needs and abilities very well. This subjective judgment will take into consideration all of the objective evidence which can be secured. There will be no assumption that a truly scientific cause and effect relationship can be established in areas so vague and immeasurable as the development of the individual child or the adjustments of groups of children to their social environment.¹

Evaluation, in other words, becomes a matter of subjective judging of the progress of the program of the school toward a set of purposes or objectives which have been set up as bases for the building of that program.

¹ J. R. McGaughy. *An Evaluation of the Elementary School with a Forecast of Its Future*. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1937, pp. 383-384.

THE VALUE OF THE SCHOOL HEALTH EXAMINATION

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In this day of health consciousness, it is surprising that so important a health aid as the school-health examination needs emphasis. However, this adjunct to the school system has been much neglected, not only in the smaller communities, but also in larger centers.

The School Code provides that " . . . school trustees and city boards of education shall have power, and it shall be their duty to give diligent care to the health and physical development of pupils"¹ The school boards are furthermore empowered to employ one or more physical inspectors, to make rules for the examination of pupils, and for the care and correction of such defects as may be found. Any defects found are to be reported to the parent or guardian, who is then responsible for the correction of such defects. Those parents who do not wish their children examined must file each year a written statement to that effect with the principal of the school. Such children are then exempt from all physical examinations, but may be excluded from school whenever they are suspected of having any contagious or infectious disease, and may not be readmitted until the school authorities have been satisfied that such disease does not exist.

The law specifies those persons who may be employed as physical inspectors. Only physicians, nurses, dentists, optometrists, and teachers with special training are qualified for this position. They must have a special credential granted by the California State Board of Education. When a child is examined by the school authorities, he is examined by experts.

So much for the provisions of the law. The benefits of an adequate school-health program are felt in the community as a whole, since such an organization is valuable in the control of communicable diseases; it is helpful to the school in that it relieves the teachers of responsibility in matters of public health for which they have had no special training. Improvement in the general health of the school population, which is one of the results of such a program, also increases the average daily attendance in school, with a consequent increase in the appropriation of funds in that school district. The benefits to the child himself and to his family are no less important. The

¹School Code section 1.100.

school is often responsible for the discovery of defects, the neglect of which may result in a severe handicap in adult life.

It is highly desirable, if a health program is to be established in a school system, to have it under the supervision of a physician. The condition of the heart, lungs, and abdomen is important in adjusting a child to his school. Their condition can be ascertained only by the complete examination which a physician is equipped to give. Mere inspection of the face, teeth, tonsils, determination of visual and auditory acuity, and measurement of the height and weight is inadequate for the discovery of all significant defects. It is also necessary to have the services of nurses who can cull those children needing to see the physician from the day's quota of ailing pupils, some of whom may have inconsequential complaints such as a stomach-ache from a hastily eaten breakfast and a dash to school, while others may be developing an acute illness. The nurse is also invaluable in the arduous task of following up those children with defects until the defects are corrected. Many parents postpone removal of infected tonsils, the repair of decayed teeth, the purchase of suitable glasses, and so on, indefinitely unless they are often reminded of the need for such correction.

The school physician does not invade the field sacred to the family doctor. He merely examines the child for defects, and points out the need for their correction to the parent or guardian. The actual treatment of the child is to be done in every instance by a physician chosen by the family. The school physician determines the amount of activity suitable for a handicapped child during school hours, consulting with the family physician whenever possible. The activity after school hours must be supervised by the family and the physician chosen by them.

Despite the care lavished on the average school child, it is surprising how often the examiners discover defective vision in one or both eyes, impaired hearing, and unsuspected heart murmurs. Defective vision is commonly overlooked until the child begins to read. It may go unnoticed even then if only one eye is defective. Defective vision may have been present from birth, or it may be the result of use of the eyes in poor light or for close work. If both eyes are defective, the child has trouble with his school work, is slow in learning to read, is inattentive since he cannot see what is going on in the front of the room. If only one eye is poor, the child will use the good eye, allowing the poor one to grow progressively worse from lack of use. Physicians often find students entering college with little or no vision in one eye who have never worn glasses. By the time they are of college age, it is often impossible to restore normal vision in that

eye, but had these persons been examined and glasses fitted when they first started to school, it is probable that their vision would have been preserved. Two years ago a student was examined at Chico State College who was very near-sighted. She had never seen clearly across a room, and had never seen the stars in the sky at night. Since she planned to teach, she was required to get glasses at once, and was astonished to discover how much a normal person could see that she had missed until that time. She was fortunate, for it is not every nearsighted person whose vision can be so promptly improved when he has waited so long to obtain proper glasses.

Another distinct handicap is defective hearing which will also keep the child from making normal progress in school. Many school systems now own an audiometer, a device which accurately measures the amount of hearing loss. Thoughtful attention to colds, sore throats, earaches, and running ears does much to prevent infections in the ears which will result in deafness.

Heart murmurs are of three types: those due to some defect with which the child is born; those due to disease of the heart, which in children is apt to be the result of some illness such as rheumatic fever, St. Vitus's dance, or tonsilitis; and those which are due to a disproportion in the rate of growth of the heart and the rest of the body. Whatever the cause of the murmur, the child deserves careful supervision of his activity. Children with congenital heart disorders are relatively few, so that health examiners are particularly concerned with the children in the other two classes. Children whose heart murmurs are due to variation in their growth rate will outgrow the murmur and will have perfectly normal hearts, provided they do not strain the heart by injudicious participation in competitive games. This does not mean that these children may not play such games, but they should be so supervised that they do not play when they have colds or other infections. Children with acquired heart disease also overcome their defect provided their activity is carefully supervised during the convalescent period.

There are crippled children in nearly every school system whose parents are unable to pay for the services of a specialist who could relieve the condition. These children can receive the necessary care through the county and the state which jointly maintain a fund for just this purpose. Physically handicapped children include those who have hare lips, cleft palates, crossed eyes, and crooked teeth, as well as those with the familiar disabling skeletal disorders resulting from infantile paralysis and tuberculosis of the bones. These defects influence the mental health of the child, as well as his physical development. Such youngsters develop feelings of inferiority and associated

emotional psychic disturbances. These can be largely dispelled by measures aimed at the correction of the physical defect with the result that the child can assume a normal position among his contemporaries. The school health department is usually the agency which urges the parents on to secure the necessary treatment for these children.

Defects such as those mentioned should be corrected as soon as they are discovered. Many professional fields have strict health standards. It is unfortunate for a student to reach the college level only to find that he has some defect which will prevent his entering the field of his choice. All too often these are defects which could, and should have been corrected while the child was in the lower grades; but the matter was neglected, or school-health examination was lacking, and the defects went unnoticed. Teaching is one of the professional fields which has strict health standards which must be met by every candidate for a credential.

In addition to discovering physical defects many school-health programs include opportunities for diagnostic tests and immunizations. One of the most valuable of these is the tuberculin-testing survey. This is done through the California Tuberculosis Association, which supplies the materials, the school-health department supplying physicians and nurses. Children who react positively, indicating merely that they have been exposed to the disease, are examined by X-ray to determine the presence or absence of active disease. Fortunately for our peace of mind, very few—less than 1 per cent of exposed children—actually develop the disease. Yet it is very important to discover these children, not only in order to offer hope of cure to the child himself, but to protect other children from exposure to the disease which he has. It should be made clear, perhaps, that no child is tuberculin tested or immunized to any disease, without the written consent of his parent or guardian.

Immunization to diphtheria and vaccination for smallpox are offered through some school-health departments at a small cost, sufficient only to cover the cost of the materials. This is also a valuable service, for despite the fact that these two diseases are relatively uncommon now, they will break out in epidemic form as soon as a nonimmune population is available. It has been estimated that if less than 35 per cent of the population is immune to diphtheria, there is danger of an epidemic.

In some communities, as in Chico, a preschool roundup is conducted, at which children who are about to enter school are examined and immunized. This is a useful project since it is highly desirable

that a child be in as good physical condition as is possible before he takes on the additional activity of school.

The inspection by a nurse or physician is of great aid in controlling the spread of communicable diseases through the classroom. In a well-organized school-health service, all children who complain of illness, or who appear ill, are sent to the health room as soon as the class meets. Here the nurse, or the physician, sees them, and sends home any child who is really ill. The child coming down with a communicable disease, then, is removed from the classroom before there has been much opportunity to expose his classmates. It is felt that control of these childhood diseases is easier in school children than in others, since they are under the constant supervision of teachers who are looking for evidence of disease, and who isolate children suspected of having an infectious condition. In many homes a child who is slightly ill is not closely observed, especially if there are many children, and the mother is busy and anxious to have the children out of the house in order to get her work done. Such a child, sent out to play with others in the neighborhood, often exposes many children in the vicinity before his complaints are sufficiently bitter to impress his parents with the idea that he is really sick.

Many of the common diseases are easily recognized when they are well developed. Their period of greatest infectiousness, however, is apt to be the two or three days before the signs of acute illness or the rash appear. During this period the child may complain of only a slight cold. For this reason parents are urged to keep their children at home when they have colds. Even if the child has only a common cold, and not an infectious disease, his presence in the school may cause some susceptible child to catch not only his cold, but to have some of the unfortunate complications of a common cold, such as abscesses of the ear, bronchitis, or pneumonia. Furthermore, the safest and quickest way to get rid of a cold is to stay in bed for a day or two when the cold first begins.

Parents should cooperate with the school authorities in safeguarding the health of the school population by, first, preparing the child for school by correcting all known defects, and having him vaccinated for smallpox and immunized against diphtheria; second, by promptly caring for any defects which may be discovered in the school health examination; third, by keeping their children at home when they are ill or when they have colds.

DENTAL HEALTH EDUCATION IN THE BERKELEY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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Last week Johnnie Jones, a freckle-faced newsboy, stopped me on the street and said, "Miss Fitzgerald, you know that there cavity I had in my six-year molar; well, I had it filled." Now Johnnie does not apply the rules of grammar in everyday speech, but he has learned the terms "cavity" and "six-year molar." Teaching terms, however, is not all that counts. Johnnie's attitude and interest in the care of his teeth and their relationship to his health are what make me feel that our efforts have not been in vain in presenting the dental health education program in the Berkeley Public Schools.

Mary Smith is an eight-year-old child whose mother is a prominent club woman, and Mary had followed her to the club. Upon meeting me there Mary rushed up and said, "Mother's made an appointment to take me to the dentist. Do you think the decay will have reached the dentine before next Tuesday? My appointment isn't till then; mother couldn't get it sooner." Mary's mother was naturally a bit embarrassed, but Mary and I are friends so such a conversation did not disturb either her or me.

Such incidents occur almost daily in my life. Dr. Jones, the family dentist, meets me at a dental meeting and says, "You remember Bill Brown; he's a patient of mine. He used to be a holy terror, and yesterday he walked into my office and said, 'Hey, Doc, How's for filling this molar; it has a cavity in the enamel and I want it filled before it gets into the dentine.'"

How has this attitude been achieved? What methods have been employed? The answer is simply education in dental health.

Fourteen years ago, a group of public-spirited Berkeley dentists became interested in the health and well-being of the children of the city. They convinced the members of the Board of Education and the Superintendent of Schools that the school dental clinic which had been operating for over twelve years was not in keeping with the modern trends of preventive dentistry. A full-time dentist was employed by the public schools, and an annual budget of over \$4,000 was allotted to dental service. However, less than 500 children a year were receiving treatments. The dentists suggested that two

dental hygienists be appointed for the same budget allowance and that the dentist be eliminated.

The Board of Education acted favorably on this recommendation, and on February 1, 1925, I assumed the duty of dental hygienist for the Berkeley Public Schools. Guided by the advice and counsel of Dr. Guy S. Millberry, Dean of the College of Dentistry, University of California, and Dr. William P. Shepard, Director of Health Service for the Berkeley Schools, the dental health education program was planned. A survey of the kindergarten, first-, second-, and third-grade children in a cross section of the city was made to see the existing conditions. The survey revealed that 82 per cent of the children in these grades had defective teeth. Their parents were notified of the existing defects, and the children were given classroom talks on the care of the teeth. The following semester, and up to the present time, the children in all elementary schools have monthly classroom talks on the care of the teeth by the hygienist. Dental examinations with the aid of a mouth mirror and explorer are given annually to every child in the elementary schools. Those children with dental defects have a follow-up examination after six months. Every child who has clean teeth, and good teeth is given a badge certifying that his teeth are in good condition. The other children are given notices urging their parents to take them to the dentist. The teacher in each classroom is presented with a "good teeth thermometer" indicating the number of children whose teeth are in good condition and the number of those whose teeth need dental attention. As each child goes to the dentist and has his teeth put in perfect condition, a certificate is sent from the dentist to the teacher and the thermometer advances one point for each child who has all the defects corrected. This certificate is then forwarded to the dental hygienist who awards the badge to the child. Good teeth banners are awarded to all classrooms where thermometers reach 100 per cent.

When the examinations are over, the dental hygienist again visits the various classrooms with organized lessons for each grade level. Some lessons are on dental anatomy. Through chalk talks the anatomy of the tooth is made comprehensible even to the young child. He sees the pulp (or, as it is commonly called, nerve) down in the center of the tooth and, through illustrations he is shown how decay proceeds, and why pain is an accompaniment to dental diseases. Mimeographed copies of six-year molars are made by the children and they take them home to the parents. Some write on their papers, "My six-year molars are good." Others write "My six-year molar has a cavity. I need to go to the dentist."

A large model and toothbrush is used to demonstrate the correct method of toothbrushing. Later, applicators are made to be make-believe toothbrushes and toothbrushing becomes a game. Visual aids such as slides, moving pictures, models, and charts are used in the upper grades. Chalk talks and socialized discussions are included in the teaching procedures. The program is such that it interests old and young children alike.

In the many school systems throughout the United States, the dental program includes the filling and extracting of teeth for school children by dentists. This, of course, provides a temporary advantage to the child. It is believed that the ultimate effect militates against the educational phase of dental hygiene as a school project. Everyone understands that a sense of personal responsibility and initiative in individual effort are necessary in accomplishing worthwhile results. Calling a boy out of class and putting his teeth in proper condition, practically whether he will or not, and free of charge does him a valuable service; however, this is incidental and adds little to his attitudes and habits in overcoming resistance to the pain and expense of dental service after he leaves school. On the other hand, if you can teach him to appreciate the importance of dental hygiene to the extent that he will go to his own dentist and earn his own fees if necessary, or make his appointment at a clinic, and take pride in doing it, you may reasonably expect him to develop a sense of personal care and self-reliance.

Certain school districts employ dentists to examine the children's teeth and carry on the educational program in the schools. Persons familiar with the curriculum for dental students realize that they do not receive training in public school procedures nor pedagogy. The dental hygienist, on the other hand, has the same predental course in the University as the dentist, but her work includes, in addition to her dental training courses in education, psychology and practice teaching in dental hygiene. She is a qualified health educator who supplements her work by examining the children's teeth and cleaning the exposed surfaces of the teeth. Dental hygienists can be employed by school departments at about one-half the cost of employing a dentist. If dentists are employed it would seem that school directors would see to it that the dentists do the work for which they are qualified—that is, operative dentistry, and that hygienists do the teaching and examining of the children. There is a place for both in every public school department.

The instruction of dental hygienists is related to everyday experiences and to the natural instincts and desires of children. Herein lies the chief difference between the old so-called "health teaching,"

which aimed for knowledge, and the new teaching which measures its success by the action in which it results. Of what value is it to know the beneficial effects of fresh air unless that knowledge results in daily out-of-door play and open windows at night? Of what value is knowing the structure and composition of teeth unless it results in regular dental care? What is the value of dental and physical examinations if they are just made and record cards filed in the offices? What is the good of weighing children unless children are made aware of their weight? Yet it would seem that some school departments weigh and examine children simply to have the records complete. The goal of dental hygienists is not records, but healthier, happier, and more useful children.

A mouth full of decayed, broken teeth is not just a dental problem to the dental hygienists. They see these defects in relationship to the mental and physical condition of the child. They must educate him, and it is through their knowledge that they can stimulate him to be his own teacher and have the defects corrected. That this has been achieved in the Berkeley Schools is shown by the fact that only 40 per cent of the children in the elementary schools had defects in June, 1938, whereas, 82 per cent had defects in 1925. An even smaller percentage of defects is anticipated for June, 1939, because of the effective dental health education program which is in operation at the present time.

PARENT PARTICIPATION IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

ALMA SMITH CHAMBERS, *Supervisor, WPA Nursery Schools,
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The newer concept of parent education views education as a flexible, vital process in which every learner is met on the level of his own interests and needs, and in which growth is conceived in terms of an inner process which affects a reorientation of the person as a whole.¹ With this concept in mind teachers, responsible for planning an environment for both parents and children in which some of these learning experiences may take place, must stretch their horizons to provide wider areas and deepening experiences. They must be sufficiently flexible and adaptable themselves to offer learning opportunities not only to the parent who is a college graduate, but to the parent who has had little or no formal schooling. To take parents at the various levels of development and lead them in new understandings of themselves, their children, family relationships, and school procedures suggests at once the importance of considering the areas, methods, and content to be used.

There are three large areas in which parent participation in early childhood takes place in an organized program of parent education—namely, group meetings, individual conferences in the home and school, and activities in which parents “learn by doing.” It is impossible to discuss one area without touching upon the others because of overlapping phases and interaction at many points. So much has been written, however, about the first two aspects that I shall consider primarily “learning by doing.”

LEARNING BY DOING

In certain cooperative nursery schools and in the nursery schools established under the WPA Education Program of the California State Department of Education as part of its adult program, programs in education for home and family living have been developed in which parents are offered opportunities to share with teachers in observing and participating in the nursery school. Such programs have been initiated where local administrators have felt strongly that school systems should take responsibility for the education of parents long before the time that children may be legally admitted

¹ *Parent Education*, Pennsylvania Curriculum Studies, Bulletin 86. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, 1935.

into regular schools, and that the nursery school offers a natural center for such learning.

In 1934 Berkeley developed an adult program in family life education, inviting all nonworking mothers of children enrolled in its nursery schools to spend three hours each week in observing children and participating in its activities in addition to scheduled conferences and regular group meetings. A questionnaire revealed that only 29 of the 121 parents had had any previous experience with a school-organized program in adult education. The median number of years of schooling for the group was 8.6 years with a range from no schooling at all to a master's degree. It was evident that opportunities in parent education would have to be in terms of individual need to permit the reorientation of each parent.

The plan has spread until now in every city in this state where there is a WPA nursery school there is some provision for parent participation. In December, 1938, parents in each of the 69 WPA nursery schools averaged 223 parent hours for each school.

ORDER OF INDUCTION

Parent participation usually falls into the following fields:

1. Morning inspection
2. Midmorning nourishment
3. Housekeeping
4. Specific play activities
5. Routine procedures of toileting, washing, eating, and rest

The Berkeley Public Schools has the following form prepared which is filled in and distributed as a notice to each parent of a child enrolling in nursery school.

-----Nursery School welcomes you as a new mother and offers you the following opportunities to share with teachers in planning for your child's welfare:

1. Consultation with the physician on any-----morning concerning your child's health. Appointments may be made through the head teacher or nurse.
2. Informal daily contact with the head teacher or nurse each day when you bring your child for health inspection and when you call for him.
3. Weekly conferences with the parent counselors about your child's progress in school or interpretation of the nursery school program.
4. Three hours spent by you each week in the nursery school, observing the children and sharing with the teachers in planning and carrying out the daily program.
5. Group meetings for mothers and other interested adults every-----afternoon, from 1:15 to 3:15 o'clock conducted by the parent counselor.

6. Community meeting for fathers, mothers and friends the.....
evening of each month at 7:45 p. m., with special speakers.
7. The Bulletin Board: Announcements:

(Read it daily for child development aids)

Reports
 Daily Menus
 Consumer Aids
 Food Charts
 Nutrition Suggestions for the Whole Family
 Magazine Clippings
 Parent Participation Calendar
8. Your child is with us six hours each day and with you at home the other eighteen.
Together, let us plan his whole day.

Order of induction varies with each parent, depending upon the level of his particular interest and need; generally speaking, from the simple to more complex experiences, as indicated in the above order. If, however, a parent has a problem in any field, we attempt to give him help with that particular problem at the time of need.

Preparation is carefully made for periods of participation by informal conferences with the parent concerning the school procedure, before the parent enters into it. Another conference follows the period of participation in which the teacher attempts to clarify and interpret the school program to the parent. Participation varies, therefore, from the simplest activity of helping the teacher arrange the play environment to almost complete control of it, with the teacher in the background to step in and assume direct responsibility as needed.

The health and nutrition of the child have often proved to be the entering wedges in building closer contact with the home. As mothers assist in the health room they sometimes inspect children's throats for the first time, they tell the teachers, since their children cut their baby teeth. They discuss optimum well-being and ways of working toward that goal with the teacher. They gradually assume more responsibility for the health of their own children and for the welfare of the group. And their experiences are similar in the participation in play activities. Parents see firsthand the importance of raw materials, of large muscle-building play, of socializing experiences in cooperating, taking turns, developing respect for self and others as demonstrated by the children in their natural, spontaneous play activities. Play is soon regarded as a tool of learning and parents begin to evaluate their own children in their rightful places. Many parents make delightful contributions to the short story and music periods,

and in the case of the foreign born, share with the groups the songs and stories of their own native lands.

To avoid possible confusion about participation in housekeeping activities, one point must be stressed. The paid household staff is, of course, responsible for housekeeping duties. There are many parents, however, who have problems in home management of one kind or another and who ask for help in this field. How to prepare and cook vegetables; how to use leftovers; how to make better use of surplus commodities; how to remove cod-liver oil stains from children's clothing; how to clean and brighten rooms; how to repair broken toys; all such questions come from parents of the children and can best be answered by demonstration. The demonstration method to be effective must allow for practice; and so, for those parents who require it, direct experience is provided in any of the above fields—not as a task but as an opportunity in learning.

OUTCOMES

In the laboratory setting parents soon lose their self-consciousness and sense of inadequacy in their parenthood. They have an opportunity to assist teachers in many phases of the program—to make original contributions in terms of their own cultural experiences, to gain a "longer" range point of view about child growth and development, to see that some of the problems of today are characteristic of a particular level of child development; and as some of these things permeate and become integrated into the day-by-day experience of parents they gradually develop better understanding of themselves and their children.

The give-and-take of this experience is of tremendous importance to both teacher and parent. Nursery school teachers have come to realize that they can learn from parents quite as much as parents can learn from them. This interaction results in enrichment for everyone—child, parent, and teacher. It is not felt that the children suffer from the participation of parents. On the contrary, it is believed that the vital dynamic experiences of learning new meanings about children from direct, supervised, and interpreted activities with them is wholesome and natural for everyone concerned.

OTHER AREAS

It has already been pointed out that many informal conferences are held with parents. In addition to this, the staff of the W. P. A. Nursery School makes on the average of one home call to a family every month. Group meetings are held weekly or bimonthly in the

nursery schools to supplement the activity program. Again the school begins where it finds parents in their interests and needs. Hand activity often relaxes and puts parents at ease; therefore, the school frequently provides it for these meetings. Undergarments for children are made from sugar or flour sacks; children's tables and chairs and housekeeping equipment are made from orange or surplus boxes; wastebaskets, from ice-cream containers and wallpaper scraps—the group learns how to make the best use of whatever resources are at hand.

These projects are used as a basis of discussion. The life experience of each member is respected in these group study meetings. In looking back over a year's work, the staff finds that, regardless of where the program for parents began, child development and family relationships underlie all of the meetings, whether they proceed from consumer education, minimum housing standards, health and hygiene, or other related subject fields.

CONCLUSION

Parent participation in a program of early childhood education at once democratizes education because of the emphasis upon process, interaction and flexibility of content, method, and participants. The willingness of teachers to welcome the contributions of parents and of parents to be able to work closely with teachers in the child's first experience away from home may have far-reaching effects in helping the child to form rather than reform socially acceptable habits of living.

THE FUNDAMENTAL NEEDS OF THE CHILD¹

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Training, no matter how broad, gives to the individual a point of view, a philosophy, a set of dogma, a few rituals, some ceremonials, and a prejudice. When, therefore, a psychiatrist discusses with you a point of view, it will be colored by his prejudice much as if a New Dealer, a Socialist, or a radical, or an advocate of programs of progressive education were discussing a subject with you. Some schools of psychology, of education, of psychiatry, of medicine, of political science, readily admit that theirs is the discipline to save the world. I do not assume any such finality; on the contrary, I hold that only through a synthesis of elements of a given social order or a cultural pattern can the personality develop wholesomely.

As one looks about him at the various types of literature, one is immediately struck by the wealth of material published regarding the needs of the child. Here, emphasis is placed on his physical needs, a good heredity, an adequate diet, protection from communicable diseases; again, his social needs are stressed through statements emphasizing worthy home membership, the wise use of leisure time and recreational opportunities, and socialization as the outstanding achievement of childhood. There, we see stressed the educational needs as being met by parent education, the nursery school, the kindergarten, the activity program, the reading-readiness program, the continuous promotion, and many other schemes. Occasionally, as in such presentations as *Wayward Youth* by Aichhorn,² "*New Aspects of Juvenile Delinquency*," by Healy and Bronner,³ and *Substitute Parents*, by Sayles,⁴ one finds a discussion of the emotions as adjusting or disrupting elements in the personality of the child.

Further elaboration and interpretation of the general needs of the child may readily be found in the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*;⁵ *The Children's Charter*;⁶ Thomas' expressed needs as security, approval, opportunity for new experience, and the like; Percival Symonds' elaboration of Thomas' expressed needs in relation to education⁷ as expressed in his book, *Mental Hygiene of the School*

¹ An address given at the Conference on Direction and Improvement of Instruction and on Child Welfare, Hotel Biltmore, Los Angeles, October 5, 1938.

² August Aichhorn, *Wayward Youth*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1936.

³ William Healy, and A. F. Bronner, *New Light on Delinquency and Its Treatment*. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1936.

⁴ Mary Buell Sayles. *Substitute Parents*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1936.

⁵ *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35. Washington: United States Department of the Interior.

⁶ *The Children's Charter*, White House Conference on Child Health and Development. Washington: United States Department of the Interior, 1931.

⁷ W. I. Thomas, *The Unadjusted Girl*. Boston, Mass.: Little, Brown, and Company, 1931, p. 4.

Child;¹ Kanner's applications on the basis of his psychobiological concept;² and Ryan's classified needs as found in his recent book, *Mental Health Through Education*.³

In this discussion of the school child and his fundamental needs, I should like to direct your attention to the school as a wholesome or an unhealthful environment. In their book, *Good Eyes for Life*⁴ Henderson and Rowell plead for a minimum of eight to ten foot-candles of light. Surveys by the University of Texas, published in their bulletin, *Eye Health Study of Texas School Children*,⁵ clearly indicate that classrooms are inadequately lighted, that on clear days one-half of the desks have a subminimal lighting. Surveys conducted in Long Beach have given the findings of one and one-half to four foot-candles of light on the farthest rows from the source of light being raised to six foot-candles by inadequate artificial illumination.

May I direct your attention to the school environment in which handwashing, toilet, and drinking facilities are entirely inadequate to meet the fundamental needs of the growing child. According to a report issued by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company,⁶ only 32 per cent of 404 schools surveyed in twenty-two states and the Dominion of Canada were able to meet the standards of the American Child Health Association; only 19.3 per cent met the requirements of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; and only 5.7 per cent met the standards set by Wood-Rowell for such facilities. Yet children are taught that hygiene and cleanliness are fundamental necessities in our present-day social life. It has been my responsibility to conduct audiometric tests of children in the public schools. Because of extraneous noises from gongs, bells, screeching, singing water heaters, squeaking hinges, power lawn mowers, loud, echoing flush toilets, and other noise-producing equipment 50 to 70 per cent of the tests had to be repeated. It is not a flight of the imagination to ask the question, if these extraneous noises disturb the child enough to give him impaired hearing by distracting his attention while being tested, what does such a bombardment do to the child from the standpoint of his attention to teaching. One might thus go through the school environment and check glare, dust, inadequate and improper seating, poor ventilation, and other factors that are definitely inimical to the fundamental needs of the child.

¹ Percival Symonds, *Mental Hygiene of the School Child*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1934.

² Leo Kanner, *Child Psychiatry*. Springfield, Illinois: C. C. Thomas Company, 1935.

³ W. Carson Ryan, *Mental Health Through Education*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1938, pp. 11-16.

⁴ Olive Grace Henderson, and H. G. Rowell, *Good Eyes for Life*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1934.

⁵ J. Guy Jones, F. M. Hemphill, and Jeanie M. Pinckney. *Eye Health Study of Texas School Children*. Austin, Texas: Bureau of Nutrition, University of Texas Extension Division, p. 51.

⁶ *Handwriting Facilities in Schools*. School Health Monograph No. 3. New York: Welfare Division, Metropolitan Life Insurance Company [1929 Edition, revised], p. 11.

The child-teacher relationship in the schools of today offers the greatest opportunity for directed personality development. The teacher becomes, consciously or otherwise, the parental substitute in this particular environment. As such, she has an important role in the establishment of the ego-ideal of the average child. Most of us, as parents of school children, have experienced the transference of authority from the adult of the home to the teacher in the school. It often comes with striking conviction and clarity in the words "the teachers said so." This particular transference of authoritativeness is one of the fundamental social and psychological needs of the child. The particular period is designated by Kanner¹ as the period of communal socialization and is based upon the previous period of elementary and domestic socialization. The child has grown from the "I" through the "my" and into the "our" stage of personality integration; the horizon ever increasing from the crib to the family and through the school to the greater social order. When this transfer of authority is wholesomely made, there is no clash of personalities, no parental jealousy of teacher and school prerogatives, no thwarting of goal, but rather a definite integration of the individual into his social order. When this transfer fails, parents become hypercritical of the teacher and the school. The child becomes maladjusted and his first rebellion against authority may take the form of truancy.

It is needless to call your attention to the fact that we, as a school personnel, are not meeting this transfer of authority with 100 per cent success. We too often hide behind the screen which we ourselves have labeled "parental inefficiency." Our obligations as an educational profession is to approach our responsibility to this particular situation as a need to be met here and now. To this end the transfer must be authoritative rather than threatening, guiding rather than coercive, leading rather than driving, inspirational rather than dominating, and in accordance with the local cultural pattern rather than against it.

The word "security" continually appears through this literature as a fundamental need of the child. It is readily agreed by all of us that economic, familial, social, and emotional security are necessary to the growth and development of the individual. It is a little harder to consider that the need for the feeling of security in the school situation is the responsibility of the teacher. One thinks of the child often as a separable or departmentalized child—a home child, a play-group child, and a school child—with the supposition that these phases of childhood are not interdependent and related. By our very

¹ Leo Kanner, *op. cit.*, pp. 31, 36-38, 87, 303.

attitude of professional aloofness, many of us assume that we are able to see only that phase of childhood which we see from nine o'clock in the morning until half-past two in the afternoon, five days a week, nine and a half months of the year, and that we have nothing to do with the home child or the play-group child. What would you say if your principal would suggest that this semester you should try to know your school child also as a home child and as a play-group child? I can tell you: you would say that you are too busy, that your responsibility, after all, is to teach and that the School Code sets your hours from eight-thirty to three o'clock and that the principal is a Socialist, a Communist, or an educational radical. Yet you are to control and direct 20 per cent of the child's time and you choose to do it by ignoring the other 80 per cent. You feel the security in the home, in the play group, and in the school situation are separate and distinct factors. You are dealing with personality development rather than the narrow educational concept that you are teaching the individual to respond to letter symbol stimuli.

Security implies being wanted, having an opportunity to achieve in proportion to one's abilities, being encouraged to express and enjoy one's personality, being considered, respected, and treated as an individual. While no teacher is expected to be able to change the home child's or the play-group child's total reaction or to meet all of his needs, an understanding of these will surely tend to give her a greater ability to give to her school child and children the security that is such a universal need of growing childhood. It is encouraging to note that W. Carson Ryan enthusiastically elaborates the point that the greatest element in the promotion of security in the classroom is in the marked increase in the friendliness in the child-teacher relationship.¹ To elaborate this friendship element in the development of security for the personality I should like to suggest the reading of the autobiography of Chevalier Jackson² to all teachers. During his school days Chevalier Jackson, though often the butt of cruel practical jokers maintained a feeling of security through the friendliness of his teachers and thus was developed a personality whose humanitarian contributions to mankind are immeasurable.

In the philosophy, arrangement, and elaboration of our curriculum, the child should be educated for change. This idea of a fundamental need of childhood is expressed in Plant's book, *Personality and the Cultural Pattern*.³ We need to teach that life is change, that growth is a biological sequence, that the nature of the world and of man is constantly in an evolving state, that change is inevitable

¹ W. Carson Ryan, *op. cit.*

² Chevalier Jackson, *Life of Chevalier Jackson*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938.

³ James Stuart Plant, *Personality and the Cultural Pattern*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1937.

so long as there is a response to stimuli. We need, according to Plant, "To teach children to be adaptable to change" This implies

that there will be frequent audits of what they might do about their problems in terms of what they can do about them. For much of the tragedy of life comes, not from faulty goals, but from the dynamic power of individual goals which have remained fixed in a situation so changed that they cannot be attained. To teach people to be adaptable to change is to teach them to take out of change what fits their needs and to relinquish goals that the new have made it impossible to attain.¹

Thus a psychiatrist sees, in part, as the fundamental needs of the school child (1) an adequate school environment, that is, one that offers opportunity to experience what the child has learned, that is freed from defective and inadequate lighting and, in which noise has been reduced to a scientific minimum; (2) a child-teacher relationship in which authority and security are fundamental elements in the learning-teaching philosophy and curriculum; (3) a philosophy of education which would prepare the child to accept and adapt itself to change rather than to fear it.

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 404-405. Used by permission of the publisher.

A FUNCTIONAL VIEW OF MODERN ADMINISTRATION

E. P. SPIERING, *Principal, Ferndale Elementary School*

School administration exists for but a single purpose; to supply leadership to the schools in serving the needs of children and society. It is a means to an end, and not the end in itself. Administration must provide the place and the means for carrying on the educative activities, and, above all, a flexible and democratic organization with a minimum of hampering restrictions, in which members concerned must be given a fair chance to participate, and in which the rights of no group or individual are infringed. School organization must involve a consideration of the pupils, the staff, the state as a whole, and the particular locality of which the school is a part. In short, school administration exists primarily to facilitate instruction.

It is the purpose of this article to examine the field of school administration as it relates to the function of the school in society today. The mechanical aspects of administration such as class scheduling, reports, and the multitudinous routine tasks will be considered only as needed to make clear principles connected with the basic function of administration.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION

The needs and conditions of society are not always easy to see; nevertheless, the status of society must be made the foundation for an educative program if that program is to serve the needs of society.

Recent changes in society indicate the need for a united, social, and collective form of living if democracy is to exist. The form which society is to take must be guided by a form of social planning wherein the interests and needs of all are placed above the profit and power of a few. Mass production in industry of all kinds, rapid transportation and communication, city life, and the limited opportunity for individual enterprise and expansion clearly indicate that people are dependent upon one another; and the effects of this close relationship cannot be left to chance or the guidance of those individuals primarily concerned with the making of profit. Rather, it is the right and duty of everyone to participate in this social and economic planning or society to the extent of his abilities. The meaning of the term democracy has undergone a change. No longer does it mean entire freedom of action, or refer to political organization alone. The

following quotation taken from Alberty and Thayer indicates and defines the change in a splendid manner.

The term "democracy" no longer denotes exclusively a form of political organization. Neither is it synonymous with equalitarianism. It implies an attitude which human beings assume toward one another such that the actions of one are regulated in the light of a sympathetic appreciation of their significance and meaning in the lives of others.¹

It is here that the role and duty of the school are vitally concerned, for it is only through the development of individuals who are capable of thinking for themselves in the face of changing conditions that this state can be achieved.

In the early days of the republic, the schools were concerned chiefly with imparting the tools of learning, reading, writing, and some arithmetic. No doubt these tools sufficed for the culture of the times. Gradually more subject matter was introduced into the curriculum until it grew too heavy and had to be simplified. This led to a condition of affairs during which "adult activities" were offered in the curriculum with the hope that they would function in later life. These stages in the growth of the public school were all centered in the subject matter and left the teaching of the social living to chance.

Later, schools attempted to offer activities in terms of the children's immediate needs and interests. This change was an improvement over the old formal subject-centered schools in that it shifted the emphasis away from subject matter and put it on cooperative activity for a common interest. Yet in spite of these changes, and though there have been shining exceptions, school organization has too often represented autocracy and authority from above and thereby could not help but teach by precept alone the attitudes of dictatorship. It is little wonder then, that so little progress has been made in planning the welfare of society in terms of its needs.

However, there has risen a school of educational thought that places the needs of society and the child as the foundation for education. It is to this school of thought that one may look for improvement of conditions. The children are educated in terms of their interests, needs, and the interests of society, making use of problems and conditions as they exist, and developing a mastery of subject matter as it functions in solving these problems.

DUTY OF ADMINISTRATION TO SOCIETY

It is with providing this latter type of education that the discussion of administration here is concerned. Administration must take

¹H. B. Alberty and V. L. Thayer, *Supervision In the Secondary School*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1931, p. 90. Used by permission of the publisher.

into account all the factors in society and furnish the leadership necessary to coordinate them into a plan of action that will lead to a free thinking society capable of planning its own destiny in terms of that with which it must work. The school cannot determine conditions, rather it must train individuals to think for themselves and equip them to meet the changing conditions with intelligent action.

The pressures that are brought to bear upon the schools of today are only too apparent to all thinking individuals to necessitate repeating in detail here. The church, business interests, powerful individuals, political interests, and various civic and patriotic organizations are the major sources from which pressure flows. These organizations and forces are not to be considered as necessarily antagonistic to the schools and their function; rather they are to be considered as evidences of the ever present forces of free thought in a democratic order; and, in cases where any pressures have adversely affected the schools, they should be interpreted as evidence of weak leadership on the part of the schools themselves.

Administration must reconcile the community thinking with what the school is doing in terms of its own needs. The public mind is not capable of analysis of the things which it wants, because that mind is always in the process of being made up, and always varies in wants from group to group. The school cannot take an indication or wish of one group and treat it as the public want. To do this is to surrender the vital function of leadership, and become prey to the pressures of the moment. Rather the administration of the school must cooperate with the society of which it is a part so that the needs of all may be met in terms of what is thought to be right in the light of the best thinking of the group.

The role of the administrator is a difficult one when guided by principles of democracy. It always has been easier to tell one what to do than it has been to plan with that individual the course of action that is best for all under the circumstances. But, if the school is to teach democracy, it must itself operate under democratic methods.

DUTY OF ADMINISTRATION TO THE SCHOOL

It has been stated that it is the duty of school administration to provide the best kind of education possible for children in terms of both the needs of society and the needs of the children themselves. To do this, adequate physical surroundings must be provided for the use of the pupils, sufficient materials of instruction must be available, and a curriculum which will allow freedom of action, thought, and growth must also be developed.

Providing this type of curriculum is the prime duty of administration, not in the sense that it should be written or dictated by that administration, but rather made possible on a democratic basis under trained leadership using the entire staff, the pupils, and all the factors and institutions in society. Furthermore, once that type of curriculum is made possible, it is the added duty of administration to provide the mechanical framework within which it is to work and grow.

Creative leadership by the administration should encourage growth of the staff as a whole, and as individuals. The program must be seen as a whole by the staff, and all work in the development of curriculums should proceed from that standpoint. The first step should be to determine the needs of the children in the particular community in which the school is located.

To advance such a program, the administration must first of all determine the state of the staff and the school in regard to their thinking and previous patterns of action in relation to the social setting in which the school functions. To ignore these factors is to fail in providing dynamic leadership, which acts as a guide and leading force to take a situation as it is and provide for its growth in terms of what should be, as indicated by the best thinking group. Individuals, as is society as a whole, are prone to be slow in making a change. Social customs exist in a culture long after they are no longer useful in light of changed conditions. However, as they have a measure of usefulness, people are loath to do away with them and work out a new plan of action.

So it is with a school staff. Loyalty exists to the old order though conditions have been changed for some time and the patterns that once served the situation well are no longer useful to any great extent.

In the light of these conditions then, the administration must act to break the loyalty to the old order, and build a new plan. The problem of how best to break down the old order and of how to build a new plan will vary with the condition of the staff, the community, and the pupils. Staff meetings in which discussion of the educational pattern as it exists takes place, group meetings in which various phases of the program are discussed and evaluated by the teachers, outside speakers which may be brought to the situation to speak on phases of changing education, individual conferences with teachers, all these are an indication of the type of course to be pursued by the administration relative to breaking down the inertia to change and bringing about dissatisfaction with conditions as they exist. Once the good of the existing order is open to question and the need for change is felt, the leadership becomes easier.

A new plan can be built in terms of the needs of the area, and in terms of the ability and thinking of the staff. The approach to this should be on a cooperative basis wherein all have an opportunity in planning and deciding just what changes are to be made, and the direction in which these changes are to lead. Again the plan varies with the individuals and the situation at hand.

Once these needs are formulated in terms of general goals, the staff may go to work and plan the actual educational offerings in terms of these general goals. The planning and determining of goals should be based on scientific findings in the realms of psychology, sociology, curriculum building, child hygiene, and educational practice as they actually apply to the situation at hand. It is the duty of the leadership or administration to see that this democratic action and thought be kept on a professional and intellectual plane. Too often in the past curriculum work has been considered an arbitrary function of the administration, and plans of action have been inaugurated and put into apparent motion without regard to the staff. This procedure ignores the principles of democratic living whereas the school in a democratic society should be the first to practice democratic methods of cooperative living. The school occupies a strategic position in society for exerting leadership and the advantages of this position should not be overlooked.

Modern democratic education must provide the means, the pattern of action, and the strong leadership necessary to achieve the ends of a democratic society in a democratic way, and calculated to teach principles of democratic and social living.

REPORT OF THE CONFERENCE OF STATE DIRECTORS OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION¹

At the call of Commissioner of Education, J. W. Studebaker, twelve state directors of elementary education assembled in Washington, D. C., September 28-29, 1938, to discuss problems of elementary education. The following state directors and representatives of the United States Office of Education were in attendance:

STATE DIRECTORS OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

H. K. BAER, *State Supervisor of Elementary Schools, West Virginia*
CHLOE BALDRIDGE, *Director of Rural and Elementary Education, Nebraska*
MRS. MINNIE D. BEAN, *State Elementary Supervisor, Idaho*
PHILA M. GRIFFIN, *Elementary School Agent, New Hampshire*
W. F. HALL, *Supervisor of Elementary Schools, Arkansas*
ERNEST A. HARDING, *Assistant Commissioner and Supervisor of Elementary Education, New Jersey*
HELEN HEFFERNAN, *Chief, Division of Elementary Education, California*
HATTIE, S. PARROTT, *Associate, Division of Instructional Service, North Carolina*
DAISY PARTON, *Supervisor of Elementary Education, Alabama*
HAZEL PETERSON, *Supervisor of Elementary Education, South Dakota*
O. E. PORE, *School Inspector, Ohio*
I. JEWELL SIMPSON, *Assistant State Superintendent in Charge of Elementary Education, Alabama*

REPRESENTATIVES OF THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION

J. W. STUDEBAKER, *Commissioner of Education*
BESS GOODYKOONTZ, *Assistant Commissioner of Education*
W. S. DEFFENBAUGH, *Chief, Division of American School Systems*
MARY DABNEY DAVIS, *Specialist in Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education*
HELEN K. MACKINTOSH, *Specialist in Elementary Education*
KATHERINE M. COOK, *Chief, Division of Special Problems*
BEN W. FRAZIER, *Senior Specialist in Teacher Training*
RALPH M. DUNBAR, *Chief, Library Service Division*

GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO THE SESSIONS

Education is a "big business" in the United States when it is considered from the point of view of numbers of teachers and children concerned. In relation to the whole field, education at the elementary level is probably of the greatest importance. Of every 100 boys and girls who are in school, approximately 75 are enrolled at the elementary level, in spite of an estimated decrease in numbers of

¹ Prepared by Helen Heffernan, Chief, Division of Elementary Education, California State Department of Education, from a stenographic report of the conference in the United States Office of Education.

elementary school children. To look at the problems of this school group from yet another angle, 20 in every 100 are foreign born or of foreign-born parents; 52 of every 100 live in places under 2,500 population, with the other 48 in larger towns and cities.

Elementary education with its complex characteristics has called increasingly for better trained teachers to guide the approximately 22,000,000 children in elementary schools. Curricula of teacher training institutions have been increasing in length from two to four years for those preparing to teach at the elementary level. Approximately 38 per cent of teachers in one-room schools have had two or more years of college education in contrast to 91 per cent of elementary teachers in larger cities.

PRESENTATION OF PROBLEMS

"How can the State department of education be of service in the classrooms?" was one form of presentation for the recurring question of how educational leadership for elementary schools can be carried on most effectively. Problems inherent in this question included the size of the supervisory staff in State departments of education, county leadership, the distribution of the principal's time between supervision of instruction and administrative details, and a preservice preparation for teachers adapted to current goals of education centering around maximum personal and social development of each child.

Major difficulties mentioned as standing in the way of improving instruction included (1) economic difficulties which have curtailed school funds; made the legal restrictions on the distribution of funds more stringent and have failed to equalize the financial burdens in some states; retarded incentive for professional improvement through inadequate teachers' salaries and little or no extension of single salary schedules; and shortened the school term in some states; (2) problems concerned with special characteristics of the states such as "highlands and lowlands" and sparsely settled areas which cause inequalities of school opportunities and difficulties in pupil transportation; (3) special problems such as high-pressure groups working to eliminate supervisory services deemed unnecessary; lack of reading material for children and inadequate library facilities for both children and teachers; a hard-drawn dividing line between the programs of elementary and secondary schools; isolated one- and two-room schools; a need of special classes for the physically and mentally handicapped children and of special adjustments for the bilingual child; traditional programs allowing no school time for teachers to become acquainted with their pupils as individuals, with the home and with community influences which the school program must supplement.

In matters of school organization the statements of problems centered about five main areas—first, what to do with immature school entrants and what help the primary-unit plan can proffer to answer the question of how to prevent school failure among young children; second, what values lie in departmental organization of intermediate grades; third, what can be done to prove the value of small classes and to reduce the present average size of class; fourth, how to expand library services; and fifth, to what extent programs for the improvement of instruction should be state-wide or local.

CURRENT PROGRAMS

Meeting as they did at the beginning of the school year, many of the state supervisors had just completed a series of institutes and conferences with district and local superintendents, supervisors, principals, and teachers, or were returning to conduct such programs. Most of those attending the conference were also at work on publications or special committee assignments. Brief accounts follow of items included in plans reported for the year's program—summarized in the order of greatest emphasis apparent in the discussions. Although the recent opening of schools may have influenced the weight of emphasis upon institute work, a close relationship was apparent throughout the discussions among the several types of leadership activities in which the state supervisors are engaged.

Institutes and conferences are under way to serve specified areas, to meet the special needs of one- and two-teacher schools, consolidated and town schools, and to help unify the whole state program. This type of service was reported for state-wide, regional, and county meetings; to be held annually, quarterly, and at other intervals; and to take place in direct connection with state departments of education, at the offices of local school administrators as well as in State universities and teachers colleges. The improvement of methods of instruction, development of curricula, and raising the professional and personal level of the teaching and administrative staffs were prominent among the general topics listed for the programs. Specific mention was repeatedly made of the service given by state universities and teachers colleges in setting up conferences, in offering summer-session courses especially needed by teachers and principals throughout the states, in providing student substitutes to release teachers for special conferences and in making curriculum laboratories available for local service.

Curriculum construction, revision, and installation occupy a major place in the supervisor's program. Discussion placed responsibility

with the state departments of education for leadership in studies of curriculum practices and local needs rather than for the production of courses of study. Topics included in the discussion were concerned with the building of an educational philosophy which recognizes current interest in personality growth of both teacher and pupil and which emphasizes the question of relationships between skills and social behaviors; with the need for local curriculum studies to aid in the improvement of instruction and to center responsibility for curricula in the areas which use them; with the need for increased library facilities; and with the advisability of including in curriculum programs the responsibilities of textbook selection.

Preservice preparation of teachers in line with practices desired in schools throughout the states was emphasized as a concern of the state supervisors. Increase in length of preparation from two to three and four years, changes in state certification requirements for teachers, and for supervisory and administrative officers serving the elementary school, and studies of curricula and practice facilities were emphasized.

Publications were recognized as essential aids in improving instruction. Many examples of current bulletins, journals, and periodicals issued by the states represented were laid before the conference members for comment. Publications of state universities, teachers colleges, and the state teachers associations were emphasized as important means of communication and cooperation among state and local school personnel and of pointing educational goals for the instructional program.

STAFF ORGANIZATION

During the discussion of staff organization in the state departments of education, several questions focused attention on issues significant to a program of improvement of instruction: How can the lines of authority and cooperation be set up to give elementary education as effective leadership as is now provided at other levels and in other areas? What are the relative advantages of a division of instruction in a state organization, and of segregated departments for elementary and for secondary education, for physical education, art and music, and so on? In what ways can the plan of organization serve to bring about helpful cooperation between staff officers responsible for elementary education and (1) other staff officers in the department of education; (2) staff officers in such other state departments as health, public welfare, and so on; (3) representatives of professional organizations; and (4) representatives of independent agencies actively serving school children?

Whereas the conference recognized that many excellent programs are now under way with the present staff organizations, discussions indicated that the scope of the elementary school merits clear-cut recognition in the total state organization with specific provisions for coordinating the program with all related services.

COMMITTEE REPORTS

Members of the conference raised certain questions with such consistency that the group suggested the committee form of attack which could provide a permanent record of the discussions as a basis for future study by all supervisors of elementary education in state departments. Conference members resolved themselves into three committees which organized tentative reports for presentation during the last session of the conference.

One committee concerned itself with organization and functions of state departments of education for the improvement of elementary school instruction, another with the characteristics of a good elementary school, and the third with types of services on which the Office of Education can cooperate with supervisors of elementary education in state departments. These reports represent preliminary thinking and are to be considered as a stimulus to more intensive discussion, and the eventual formulation of comprehensive statements.

COMMITTEE REPORT I

PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION FOR STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

The state department of education should function to provide democratic, professional leadership to the entire educational system.

The state department of education should be the clearinghouse for all educational activities being carried on throughout the state and should be the central source of authoritative information concerning the educational program.

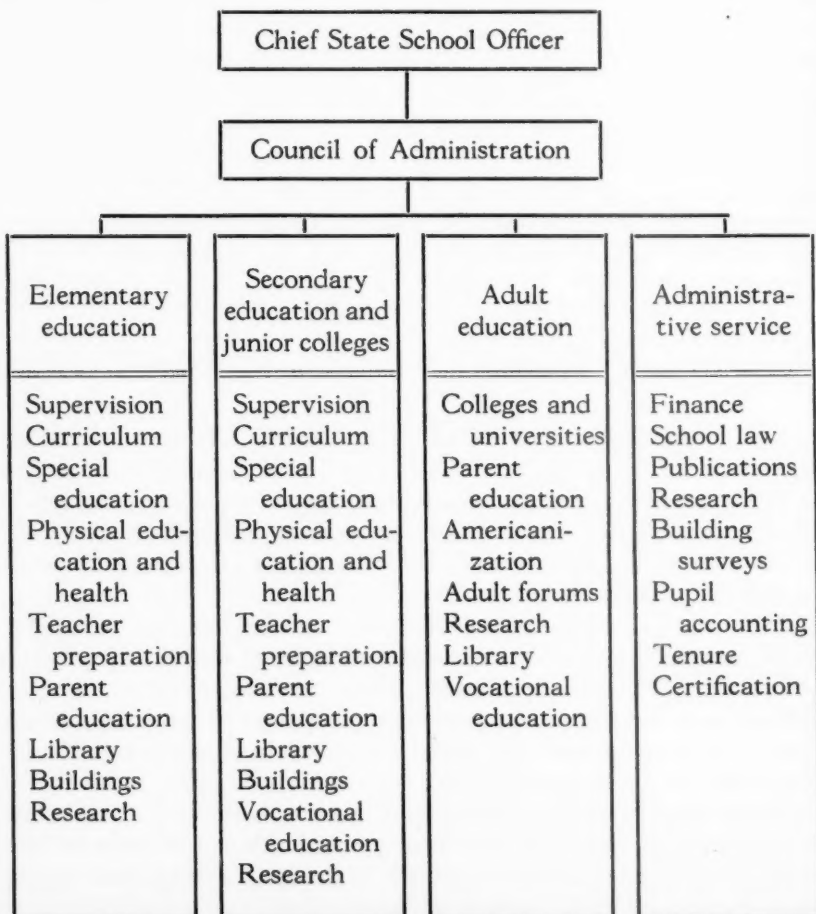
The state department of education should function as a unit rather than as a group of unrelated and independent services. The department should give emphasis appropriate to the need and importance of each service. Since the larger proportion of the school population is in the elementary school, the major emphasis should be on this important division of service.

Staff members of the state department of education should seek to establish a common understanding of the major problems of the entire school system; such a common philosophy and understanding should be arrived at by democratic procedures.

Avenues of effective coordination and cooperation should be established between departments of education and other governmental, professional, and lay organizations concerned with health, social welfare, safety, conservation, and all other agencies concerned with child growth and development and human welfare. All educational activities to be carried on in relation to public schools should be safeguarded, however, as functions of the state department of education.

State departments of education should be provided with funds for the maintenance of an adequate clerical and professional staff.

The organizational chart which follows is suggested. Unique situations may be met by reasonable modification which will not violate the principles of effective state school administration.



In order to coordinate the educational program, institutions for the education of teachers or colleges of education within state universities, or colleges, should develop policies and curricula in close cooperation with the state department of education. Other higher education institutions offering courses in teacher education should be subject to such requirements for the accrediting and certification of teachers as set up by the state department of education.

The state department of education should exercise control over all private schools by means of standards required for the establishment of such schools and by means of continued appraisal for continuance of their right to operate.

Whenever new services are added to the state department of education these services should be related to the existing organization in order to prevent decentralization.

Provision should be made for regular staff conferences and inter-departmental conferences in order to coordinate activities within the state department of education toward the achievement of common departmental objectives.

COMMITTEE REPORT II

WHAT MAKES A GOOD ELEMENTARY SCHOOL?

"Good" is a relative term which may need modification as applied to the one-room rural school, the town, city, and consolidated school, and within these situations to the various types of organization, to varying ability to pay school costs, to teachers, and to communities with different backgrounds.

ENVIRONMENT—The environment both physical and for purposes of instruction must be such that learning can take place naturally.

Building—Sanitary, properly heated, lighted, and ventilated, beautified, providing adequate space, planned around the instructional program

Playground—Adequate for number of children, equipped for activities of all age levels

Classrooms—Supplied with adjustable, movable seats, work tables, bulletin boards, blackboards, bookshelves, drawers, filing space

Special rooms—Practical arts room to include equipment for working with wood, clay, metals, food, textiles, nature and science materials, library, gymnasium, auditorium, nurse's room

Special services—Should include medical, dental, welfare, psychiatric

Books provided should be reference and supplementary, suitable in terms of levels of difficulty, interest, and number; dictionaries, atlases

Visual aids—Motion pictures, still pictures

Maps and globes—Available to all grades where needed, recent and authoritative

Supplies—Paper, paint, crayons, chalk, wood, metal, textiles, food

LEARNING EXPERIENCES—The situations in which children learn should be organized in such a way that both individuals and the group can make progress because of the opportunities for:

- Wholesome attitudes—Toward study, work, social relationships, things of the spirit
- Wide interests—Reading, music, art, play
- Personality adjustments—Sense of security, freedom with responsibility, self-direction, self-checking, social poise
- Happy working groups—Classes of desirable size, flexible groupings, curriculum adjusted to needs and interests
- Cooperative activity—School council, school newspaper, school clubs, democratic planning of program by pupils, teachers, and parents
- Real experiences—Varied, significant, enriched applications of social usage, utilizing community offerings
- Critical thinking—Research methods involving use of index, table of contents, dictionary, decisions reached, and consequences taken by children
- Continuous use of school plant—For an adequate school term, after school hours, during vacations

GUIDANCE—A mutual understanding and appreciation must be built up among teachers, children, administrators, and parents in order to make it possible for children to succeed.

- Children—Considered as individuals, problems understood through cumulative records, achievement measured in terms of attitudes as well as skills, given opportunity to show initiative
- Teachers—Healthy, well-balanced, well-prepared, interested in children, who understand principles of child development and can apply them; who give children confidence in their own abilities; who are well paid in terms of community standards of earning and living
- Administrators—Principals as supervisors, not inspectors, who are given opportunity for democratic planning, time for professional activities, and adequate clerical help
- Parents—Interested, inquiring, cooperative, sharing in development of school program

COMMITTEE REPORT III

SERVICES IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION WHICH THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION COULD FURNISH

1. Serve as a clearinghouse for outstanding programs in elementary education.
2. Formulate guiding principles for the states in their curriculum revision programs, including criteria for their evaluation.
3. Define the qualifications and duties of an elementary supervisor and of an elementary principal.
4. Initiate a program to develop a consciousness in the profession and in the public of the vital importance of elementary education.

5. Set up regional conferences on problems in elementary education.
6. Prepare a list of consultants on the different problems of elementary education who would be available to serve state departments of education on call.
7. Publish a digest of the results of research studies on elementary education problems.
8. Arrange conferences of state elementary supervisors as frequently as feasible.
9. Make a list of pertinent elementary problems from which states may choose and study with the cooperation of the Office of Education.
10. Make a study of best practices of home and school relationships now in effect.
11. Make a study of current teacher education programs giving trainees guidance in effective counseling of parents and in stimulating mutual understanding.
12. Provide certain materials for the use of workers in elementary education:
 - a. A guide to methods of collecting, organizing, and using environmental materials
 - b. Descriptions of good library practices affecting elementary education
 - c. A digest of current library legislation with corresponding interpretations
 - d. A minimum list of library books classified by grades, including collateral reading for different subjects or units of work, supplementary readers, etc.

CONFERENCE CONTINUATION

Since the September conference represented the first opportunity for state supervisors of elementary education to meet for discussion of problems, the proposal was made that the members present organize informally for the purpose of continuing their considerations of problems common to the group. The meeting of the American Association of School Administrators at Cleveland in February was suggested as offering an opportunity to make contacts with those persons responsible for the supervision of elementary education in all forty-eight states. A clearinghouse arrangement could then be established for centering the efforts of all supervisors upon certain common problems. Under the direction of Dr. Ernest Harding of New Jersey, Chairman, and Helen Heffernan of California, Secretary, plans were made for a February meeting.

RESOLUTION

The members of the conference presented the following resolution at the final session of the conference:

Resolved, That it is the opinion of the invited members of this conference group that the conference itself is an excellent example of the splendid educational leadership, stimulation, and help which characterize the functions of the Office of Education. We are deeply grateful to Dr. Studebaker and the members of his staff for making this conference possible, for the gracious hospitality shown in so many ways, and for the important benefits that have come to each of us through the privilege of participation in the conference. We hope that it may be feasible to hold a similar meeting annually, or every two years.

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